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AMERICAN HISTORY FOR CIVIC PURPOSES

Submitted by

Dorothea Pritchard Shea

Boston University, B. A., 1929

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Your children are not your children
They are the sons and daughters of
  Life's longing for itself.
They come through you but not from you,
And tho they are with you yet they belong
  not to you.

You may give them your love but not
  your thoughts,
For they have their own thoughts
You may house their bodies but not their
  souls,
For their souls dwell in the house of
  tomorrow, which you cannot visit,
  not even in your dreams.
You may strive to be like them, but
  seek not to make them like you.
For life goes not backward nor tarries
  with yesterday.

- Author Unknown -

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CHAPTER I

SCOPE AND MEANING OF THE STUDY

History is all that has happened in the past and all that is happening today. It has left its mark in the signs and symbols of prehistoric cave writings, in monuments, documents, laws, charters and other actual remains of bygone days. Man has collected definite data concerning certain facts that have been verified and generally agreed upon by historians. For example, it is a matter of common knowledge that Columbus came to America and that the Cabots followed. These navigators have been assigned their places in history only after thought and planning in selecting, arranging, and interpreting the facts of American history as they have been found in primary sources. Of course, it would be impossible to include all facts and only those are chosen which will best carry out the aims of the historian. Naturally it is the interpretations[1] put upon actual events that so often color history in the hues of the rainbow and frequently actuality is lost in the mazes of thought in the historian's mind. Herodotus wrote the first histories for the amusement of his fellow men. Thucydides wrote that statesmen might learn how to act in the present by gaining a better knowledge of the past. Medieval historians wrote to show the power and purpose of God in dealing with men. History in the early

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(1) The Teaching of History, Henry Johnson, Ch. III. The Question of Aims and Values, p. 57.

nineteenth century dealt with morals, the rise of a great family, the importance of a political party, the protection of the laboring classes, the economic aspects of a nation or of a group within the nation; in short these historians preached as their personal inclinations guided them. With the all important rise of natural science in the middle nineteenth century the "scientific" historian came to the fore with his passion for pure facts and the conclusions to be drawn only from facts. This led to the accumulation of much needed accurate data that was "classified, divided, and organized."[1] Beginning with the twentieth century[2] historiography turned with bitterness from the world of pure facts to the conditioned world in which men live. There sprang up a consciousness that history cannot be written for the actual scientific data so empirically evolved in former authorities. Today history is being written to show how great movements and events really occurred in a society of men and women; it gives the physiographic background of the nation, the seas, rivers, plains, mountains, and valleys, the resources, the climate; the growth of churches and states, of classes and economy; the rise of thought; the development of science and of art; the role of individual leaders in all movements and events. The thinking man or woman should be aware not only of all these conditions in his material life, but that his thoughts and ideas are conditioned upon those of the past.

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(1) Charles A. Beard, Nature of the Social Sciences, p. 57.

(2) Ibid. p. 58.

American history deals with those phases of life in the European scene that led to the discovery and exploration of new lands in the western hemisphere, the settlement of the colonies along the Atlantic seaboard of North America, the exploration and settlement of the hinterland of North America, the separation of thirteen English colonies from the mother country, and the growth and development of those colonies to the present day as the United States of America.

American history is but one of the social studies. To keep its place in the curriculum it must serve certain definite aims that will be of greatest use to the individual and to the community. That is, the individual as pupil and as citizen must claim results which will be of use to him in civic life.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

The history teacher finds it comparatively easy to know <u>what</u> to teach; for the school and library are usually well supplied with authoritative tests from a keenly competitive book market. But <u>how</u> and <u>why</u> to teach are two questions most difficult to answer. When it comes to method the enterprising teacher usually accepts and makes use of all methods instead of limiting himself to one. But what aims the teacher should accept and what objectives should be placed before the student are a matter of great controversy.

History becomes a philosophy by its efforts to explain how things came to be as they are. This thesis is written to bring together a logical and concise philosophy for the teacher that will

serve at the present time in any locality, with any group of pupils as a guide for the study of American history in the secondary school.

SIGNIFICANCE OF "CIVIC PURPOSES"

David Snedden has long been the chief exponent for civic education. He preaches that it is not the past but the future that concerns us.[1] Civic education must be based on the needs of adults.[2] The final test of teaching is civic behavior and not the possession of civic knowledge.[3] The civic virtues to be most desired are: conformity to law and convention; submission to authority and the will of the majority; loyalty to approved institutions and policies; fearless and active participation in politics; self-sacrifice in emergency; and political honesty.[4] There are many reasons why modern political groups need greatly improved civic education. Life is becoming more complex and intricate economically but is giving men a desire for more security, wealth, health, and education than ever before. Political groups are increasingly dynamic, changing, and evolving instead of remaining static. In America with its hope for democracy small groups and individuals insist more and more upon the maximum of self-realization and self-determination. With such varied and conflicting desires of individuals and groups, education is faced with the need for training youth to meet the demands of civic life; and the demands of civic life provide education with

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(1) David Snedden, Civic Education, p. 8

(2) Ibid. pp. 7-9

(3) David Snedden, Educational Sociology, pp.401-403

(4) Op. cit. p. 32, pp. 125-126.

its purposes.

Significance of "Civic Purposes" in Relation to the Individual. Our history today is presenting problems and opportunities which will largely determine the immediate and future existence of each individual in the world, whether man, woman, or child. Actually, history is conditioned by the knowledge and thought with which the leaders of nations must work in communal, national, and international relations. The man in the street finds it most difficult to comprehend that his mode of life is seriously affected by the great events of his day and is honestly puzzled to know why the ordinary citizen should be concerned with social, economic, or political problems. The dressmaker believes that she needs a knowledge of fabrics and not of the Dred Scot Decision; the office manager is interested in applied psychology and business training, not international word and broken treaties. But life is handed down to the present from the past; and although many can live and work without much knowledge of history, leaders in government and in politics cannot if they would lead properly; nor if the masses are to be led properly, can they sit back and uncritically accept the dictates of those whom they appoint to office.

The average good citizen[1] is personally efficient; he is thoughtful of his physical well-being; he can undertake to fulfill the requirements of a job and will expect sufficient compensation for the same; he may have definite cultural or recreational activities which will enable him to occupy his leisure time

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(1) David Snedden, Civic Education, pp. 20-22.

creditably. But in addition to his personal efficiency a good citizen must be socially efficient; he must care for his own health and he must also be interested in public health; he must be able to provide for himself and his family, but he must also be able and willing to render public service; he must make a worthy use of his leisure time and in this worthy use must be included a discharge of his civic obligations. A man may be a fine member of his family group; he may be an exemplary worker while on the job; he may be a "good mixer" and a progressive community member; but he must also obey the law; he should vote conscientiously; give his services voluntarily when needed; follow and understand national and international trends; and carry out in his own life concepts of peace, justice, racial and religious amity.

Stated superficially these requirements do not seem to be too exacting for the socially efficient individual. But what assurance can there be that the individual who reaches maturity will ipso facto take upon himself the duties incumbent upon his citizenship? Civic laxness has brought social and economic distress to many nations of the world. Manufacturers and salesmen of munitions have received honor and prestige for the so-called services rendered to their respective countries; but this same honor and prestige have nauseated honest citizens who have been only too recently made aware of their dishonorable practices.[1]

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(1) H.C. Engelbrecht and F. C. Hanighen, Merchants of Death.

Bankers have become great philanthropists and thus have silenced the protests of thousands whose incomes have been sadly lessened by their legalized pilferings.[1] Daily newspapers carry dishearteningly frequent accounts of corrupt politicians in city, state and country.

Schools are engaged in equipping young people to take their places in the vocational world, and in late years the need for drilling "civic-mindedness" into the active consciousness of the future citizens has received serious consideration.

Civic education is becoming the prevailing mode of thought among educators in all subjects from the teaching of mathematics to the teaching of art.[2] The new ideal is to show boys and girls how to take their places in a complex society of large group relations and to function as members of political, social, and cultural orders. Present social, political, and economic evils indicate an urgent need to promote appreciation and understanding of legal restraints, of political organization and administration, of social well-being. In the United States group relations are largely built on the constitutions of state and nation; but the firm ideals of democracy are liberalizing the republic and are encouraging men to work either singly or in groups for the advancement of the nation.

Simply increasing literacy is not sufficient; even encouraging thought in students is not enough, for poor citizenship is found among thinkers (or better, among rationalizers) as well as among the thoughtless. In the past the individual

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(1) Matthew Josephson, The Robber Barons.

(2) David Snedden, Educational Sociology, p. 23.

and his right to progress have been emphasized; but only too often the individual placed his privileges far ahead of the privileges of the state and society. The individual, the state, and society all have their place in the aims and objectives of education; one must not be stressed to the disparagement of the other.

With such demands made upon the entire system of education the history teacher will do well to study carefully the aims and objectives of his own particular curriculum. Although an authority on civic education, David Snedden does not believe that American history has much direct influence in the formation of good civic habits; to quote his own words:[1]

> It is submitted that critical examination of the results of history teaching would justify these statements:
>
> a. American history as studied by the average pupil in Northern states ... leaves as residuums of knowledge an appreciation for adult years a few definite conceptions as to: (a) historic personages ... Columbus, Washington, Lee, etc.; (b) certain critical dates and eras ... 1492, 1620, the Revolution, etc.; (c) social valuations...the treachery of most Indians, the wickedness of the English in 1776 and their lack of sympathy in 1864, the odiousness of slavery, etc.; and (d) some broad facts of social evaluation... dominance of the English in colonization, the westward movement, growth of republican institutions, etc....
>
> b. American history study has very slight, if any, bearing on the adult civic behavior of students of average intellectual abilities and interests. It probably does not affect: political party membership; prevailing attitudes toward general problems such as immigration or treatment of the Indians; attitudes toward English, Mexicans, Chinese, or Canadians, or corporation production; or insight into right solutions of problems of protective tariffs, government control of general utilities, negro suffrage, international relations, etc. When the time comes for the average citizen to act in situations related to

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(1) David Snedden, Civic Education, pp. 202-203.

any of the above... that is, to influence others, to vote, to approve of policies proposed by others... he does so with very slight or negligible reference to what he has learned from history. (This may not always mean that those specialists who influence him...political leaders, editors, legislators... are similarly unaffected by their school or post-school studies of history.)

c. American history studies, for a minority of gifted youth whose school studies in general simply open doors to regions which they will largely explore by themselves, may be introductory to important fields of culture and social appreciation and thus make important indirect contributions to adult civic behavior, especially under conditions where initiative and leadership are required.

In other words, when, in adult life, a man of superior intelligence and intellectual enterprise is confronted by social problems he naturally turns to past experience for guidance. Probably almost never does he find that guidance in what he has previously actually learned of American or other history. But the historic situations of which he has remembrance, the methods of locating historic facts and authorities with which he has become acquainted, as well as his cultural interests in particular fields, all unite in giving him confidence that he can in some historic situation find help toward solving his present problems. History as now taught seems only occasionally to train him directly in these powers. Neither does it give him any reliable criteria as to the service historical knowledge can offer in solving present problems.

Undoubtedly Professor Snedden is correct in his assertions that history is too frequently taught with such poor results; but properly taught, American history can leave its residuums of knowledge that will be most beneficial to the adult for the well-informed adult needs a body of accurate historical information concerning his own country and its institutions. This does not mean that he will need to know all available facts about the United States in the past, as that is an impossibility that amounts to an absurdity upon the slightest contemplation, but he will need to have definite

conceptions of the leaders of the nation, a recollection of "certain critical dates and eras", distinct social valuations that will help him to understand the needs of his own land, such as, the need of retribution to the Indian and the negro, respective contributions of Spanish, French, and English colonizations, development of republican institutions, and the growth of democracy. In addition, political and governmental agencies should be understood, as well as the important economic trends that have persisted from the early days of our history to the present. The worth-while American citizen today understands general trends, not only of his own country alone, but of his country in relation to its position in the family of nations. He sees the greatness of his own land and at the same time he does not lose sight of the fact that it has definite failings that must be corrected. He is not blind to evils, nor is he readily persuaded that a panacea for evils is found in any single theory; he does not sidestep settlement of controversies through a lack of knowledge or means of acquiring the knowledge necessary for their settlement. The adult citizen should realize that American history has helped to imbue him with an appreciation of the aesthetic in American life and American culture. As a result of his studies, the ordinary citizen should have a keener sense of the benefits to be derived for himself from his study of national needs, national progress, and national culture.

The Individual in Relation to Society. The good citizen must understand the historical foundations of the society in which he lives. He must have an interest in, and comprehensive understanding of the political, economic, and social problems of his

own time. Teachers cannot bury their history teaching in a maze of facts concerning the past; they must teach history so that the underlying bases of current problems may be found to serve as the foundations of solutions today. The individual must understand the workings of his government, but equally important is the individual's realization that he is responsible for the furtherance of good government; that he must take upon himself the duty of helping to prevent dishonesty in government, laxness in facing social problems, injustice toward minorities, shameful international relations, or any other of the innumerable governmental failings that can be prevented only by the strictest of civic vigilance.[1]

The good citizen must vote. Yes, but for whom? How? Shall he vote as his ward leader demands? Shall he vote as the propagandists insist? Shall he vote for the party or for the man and his principles? Shall he be voting wisely if he invariably votes only on personal characteristics? Should he ever vote a straight party ticket? How can the adult citizen evaluate correctly vital qualities of leadership and successful accomplishment in public servants? If he has ever studied the lives of great men in American history, he can gain much assistance in searching for men today who will lead his country wisely and well. He will look for definite characteristics that he has learned will mark the worthy leader and earnest public servant, such as, honesty and integrity, ability to form solutions to pressing problems,

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(1) What Are Desirable Social-Economic Goals for America? N.E.A. Committee on Social Economic Goals. Journal of the National Education Association, January, 1934.

persistence in carrying through reforms, skill in choosing assistants, adherence to ideals in the face of disaster. These and many other characteristics mark the leaders of all times who are striving to elevate the race of men.

The good citizen must love his country, for how else will he learn to take an interest in its welfare? Surely personal gain is not sufficient to bring forth earnest efforts for the betterment of American institutions. Without love of country, a spirit of watchful guardianship and protection of the hard-won liberties of the nation will be lacking. America cannot stand still; her ideals led men to earnest battle for the protection and furtherance of what Americans have felt to be right; her mistakes have brought misery and injustice to many; her problems are heartbreakingly numerous today and can be solved only with the earnest cooperation of all individuals in all walks of life.[1] Only through the medium of history can the progress of the nation be determined, and her future forecast through earnest study of the past.

"HISTORY FOR HISTORY'S SAKE" IN CONTRAST WITH "HISTORY FOR CIVIC PURPOSES".

Many teachers look to history as the main source of complete and incontrovertible truth.

> Written history is constantly treated as if it were something about as definite as the multiplication table, as if it were something that inevitably

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(1) Glenn Frank, The World for Which We Must Educate, Journal of the National Education Association, 1934 p. 161.

> takes form in the mind when the past is studied, or as if it were a frame of ideas which inexorably comes out of the records when the past is under consideration. In reality it is thought about the past, checked and controlled to a certain extent by the known facts of the past.[1]

Undoubtedly there is some knowledge that is definite and unassailable; indeed it is this definite and unassailable knowledge that many teachers and scholars are constantly seeking so that they may make it part and parcel of an ideal history course. To such individuals facts are facts; either they have happened or they have not happened. Such common factors as fatigue, either mental or physical, over-wrought nerves, differences in moral values, personal vanities, or any other of the innumerable idiosyncracies of the common man, have seldom been considered by the idolator of historical fact. Too often great men are looked upon as being not of this earth, but of a finer and rarer atmosphere far apart from the imperfections that trouble lesser men. Here, for example, is an interesting comment by Mr. Nichols:

> Geneva was tense, nervous. Anything might happen. I climbed into the gallery and saw the distinguished statesmen filing in. The atmosphere ought to have been "electric". But it wasn't. Gradually I began to realize why.
>
> Firstly, the heat. Half the delegates were sweating so that there was a perpetual flutter of white handkerchiefs to dripping brows. Yet nobody thought of opening a window. Secondly, the smoke. It is a literal fact that after an hour it was impossible to distinguish the faces of the delegates from the front row of the gallery, because of the fumes from all the cheroots, pipes, cigars, and cigarettes.

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(1) Charles A. Beard, Nature of the Social Sciences, p. 52.

> Thirdly, the delegates themselves, or rather their diet. A number of them were late, attending official luncheons. Now I'd attended them myself and knew what they meant. They meant sherry and sauternes and Cointreau and benedictine. They meant hors d'oeuvres and lobster thermidor and chicken en casserole and chocolate souffle. I fell to thinking of all the acids that must be fermenting in those distinguished stomachs, of old hearts wearily pumping over-sugared blood through hardened arteries, and I asked myself if it is through such men, in such conditions, that we shall ever reach the peace that the world craves? These men are livery, irritable, mentally befogged.[1]

Some teachers would welcome this comment in their classrooms, but others would indignantly omit such carping criticism in favor of a detailed account that would content itself with listing the notables present or with describing the world-famous assemblage.

Of course, many teachers regularly teach history as assured knowledge while realizing personally that doubt does lie behind many facts as they are presented both singly and collectively. However, school conditions seem frequently to demand that history shall be taught with dogmatic firmness. Undoubtedly, hesitation as to what data should be studied, or lack of assurance as to the truth of what is to be learned cannot be inherent in every lesson. To be unceasingly on guard always to present both sides of a question, or to delve deeply for every aspect of a problem that cannot be solved is not only tedious but unnecessary and even harmful to young people.

In an appeal to continue teaching history for history's

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(1) Beverly Nichols, Health and History, condensed for the Reader's Digest, September, 1935, pp. 29-30.

sake, Carleton J. H. Hayes says that the ideal of history is

> ... to acquire more and more information concerning man's past...; to compare and contrast and weigh evidence; to endeavor to understand the past as it was; to guard ourselves and our charges against gullibility.[1]

Mr. Hayes believes that the present is made by the past and that history must teach the continuity and conservatism of human thought; the similarity, though never the exact repetition, of human action; and the possibility of discerning the future from the facts of the past.

If the facts of history could be arbitrarily determined, it would be both advisable and necessary to teach it only for the sake of those facts; but if history is to be taught so that it will be of most assistance in the long years after school days are past, then it must be taught so that it will serve as a helpful guide in a meaningful civic life.

PROPOSED LIMITATIONS

The course of study known as "American History and Government" is firmly entrenched by legislative fiat in the eleventh or twelfth grade of the high schools of Massachusetts. The same is true of most high schools throughout the nation. However, legislating American history into the high schools does not legislate it into the hearts and minds of the students, nor does such legislation guarantee that the subject will be

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(1) Carleton J. H. Hayes, The Social Studies, History and the Present, p. 77.

mastered so that it will be of greatest civic value. Frequently the subject is rather grimly approached by both instructor and pupils as one of the necessary evils that stand in the way of a coveted diploma; and though teachers and citizens look with favor upon the mastery of much knowledge and information about the United States as a whole, they would be hard put to determine exactly what good might be expected to come from this particular study. Yet canny, practical-minded legislators must have had a certain confidence in the utility of the subject to force it upon all students in such summary fashion; and in the same way they thrust it upon the attention of educators who must determine the best means of bringing to the fore examples of thought and conduct from the past that will serve as definite guides to civic life and civic attitudes.

It is, therefore, the purpose of this thesis to determine in what way American history as taught in the eleventh and twelfth grades can assist in forming civic aims, civic ideals, civic thought, and civic action. This thesis will show many of the common practices and existing theories and principles of the classroom, both good and bad; it will review many objectives that are frequently accepted in pedagogy for teachers and pupils; and it will offer suggestions for carrying out these accepted objectives; but while possible improvements of specific deficiencies will be considered, no absolute panaceas will be advocated. Rather, ideas for the development of civic ideals will be presented so as to be of use in a progressive school where teachers are given complete freedom of thought

and action or in a conservative school where teaching thought and action are hampered by tradition. In short, it is the teacher who will be considered here, and her work in teaching pupils, rather than teaching a subject, will be emphasized.

CHAPTER II

SIMILAR PREVIOUS STUDIES

Surveys on the utility of the social studies in general and of history in particular are being constantly made. Educators as a whole do not seem to be in any way satisfied with results as they are being obtained from history studies. Professor Harold O. Rugg has long advocated the abandonment of history as a separate subject in favor of a combined course in social science, but Professor Rugg has yet to prove that his theories are needed for effective teaching; for however carefully such a course is planned, it is frequently broken up in the classroom into history, geography, economics, and civics.[1] Even such an implacable foe of the present methods of history teaching as Professor Snedden still calls upon the teachers of this subject to plan their course of study as forming a

> ...necessary scaffolding for civic education...

both for school and adult life.[2]

UNITARY HISTORY

Tyler Kepner has written an able and illuminating discussion of experiments in unitary history in the Brookline High School of Brookline, Massachusetts, and has published

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(1) Arthur Bining and David H. Bining, Teaching of Social Studies in Secondary Schools, pp.208-210.

(2) David Snedden, Educational Sociology, p. 549.

the same in the January, 1935 issue of "The Social Studies" under the title of "Unitary History and Its Possibilities".

Mr. Kepner quotes from William Morrison in his definition of a unit when he declares that a unit is

> ...a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment capable of being understood rather than capable of merely being remembered. A unit in history
> (1) an evolutionary movement in history which is comprehensive in nature and significant and vital to social development; and (2) the elements comprising the unit, together with whatever principles, trends, and generalizations should be incorporated in the presentation, are important from the point of view of the learner because he sees a whole and presumably, therefore, will better understand the whole.[1]

Mr. Kepner finds that chronological history is complex and episodical because politics, economics, social and foreign relations cannot nicely dovetail into each other.

Moreover,

> ...the unit organization, properly organized, simplifies history for the learning process by tracing in more or less chronological sequence one major evolutionary process at a time. Some units follow a vertical or evolutionary setup while others are horizontal.[1]

With engaging honesty, the author continues:

> Unitary history is not a panacea. It is an honest and sincere attempt to evolve an organization that will simplify for the learner the complexities of history, that will leave the learner with some real understanding of the great evolutionary processes that have made us as we are.[2]

Opponents of unitary history might easily object that no history is complete when it is pictured as separate units or

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(1) Ibid. p. 10

(2) Ibid. p. 12

phases of life; certainly modern history cannot be interpreted or understood when it is divided and considered from any single viewpoint or when it is studied without an awareness of the interdependence of politics, economics, and social and foreign relations. Perhaps the most serious criticism of Mr. Kepner would come from the proponents of the unit organization of study. In his course of study entitled "The Unit Assignment in Secondary Education", Mr. Roy O. Billett of Boston University School of Education has laid down definite criteria for the organization of high school courses into units. Among these criteria may be included the following:[1]

I. The unit must represent a definite and valid teacher's goal and must contain a definite and desirable learning product to be acquired by the pupil.

II. The unit must be planned to make possible adaptations for different abilities, aims, interests, and needs of the pupil.

III. The unit must be analyzed into lesser learning products on each of which the major learning product in part depends.

The unit organization demands a very thorough knowledge of the subject matter on the part of the teacher, but more than this it demands critical analysis of the course of study and under the guise of "teacher's goals" and "learning products" it lays down definite aims and objectives, not of the course of

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(1) Roy O. Billet, Fundamentals of Secondary-School Teaching with Emphasis on the Unit Method. pp.505-509.

study, but of the separate units. In the hands of an earnest devotee of the unit plan of organization, the method becomes a splendid medium for effective teaching; but in the hands of one who has honest doubts or objections to the plan, the method soon degenerates into the presentation and assimilation of simple data to be acquired at the level of the pupil's learning ability. The very fact that the subject is not considered as a whole tends to break it up into topics, rather than units. Personally, I believe that a consideration of aims and objectives for the entire course, rather than solely for the units would largely tend to obviate this difficulty.

VITALIZING HISTORY

Mr. R. R. Fahrney expresses the popular attitude toward history teaching in his article entitled "Vitalizing the Teaching of History" in "The Social Studies" for February, 1934.[1] He draws for ready reference upon his experiences in the Iowa State Teachers College in Cedar Falls, Iowa.

Mr. Fahrney finds that the trend for the ten years previous to his writing has been to emphasize the practical and the utilitarian as a means toward a better order of society with more social justice and the functioning of each individual for the greatest common good. The public has definite ideas as to what should be expected from classroom exposure to history

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(1) R. R. Fahrney, Vitalizing the Teaching of History, The Social Studies, February, 1934, pp. 64-69.

teaching, for the public believes that history assimilation automatically brings about the following: a more fervid patriotism; a better knowledge of government; the capacity and the interest for intelligently solving social, economic, and governmental problems. Although the author finds that it is "dangerous to write or to teach history with a motive"[1], he none the less states as the most important motive for teaching history is

> ...the inculcation of such an understanding of the conflicting interests, motivating forces, and social adjustments of the past, as will enable a new generation intelligently to cope with current social, economic, and governmental problems. The attainment of such a goal for history requires that a knowledge of the past be related to the present, in such a way that current problems may be scientifically approached in the light of their historical background. Whether or not such an utilitarian motive can be achieved in the public schools depends entirely upon how history is taught...or perhaps I should say upon what is taught as history. ...We must revise teaching from memorization to a genuine grasp of ideas-relationships between ideas and events presented on a background of fundamental social, economic, and political forces. ...All progress is a cumulative process of experience.[2]

Mr. Fahrney decries the narrow, chronological order of events in history teaching, although he finds that seventy-five percent of high school history is so taught.

However, for any specific aid in solving this difficulty, Mr. Fahrney has little actual assistance to give other than a plea to relate the past to the present. For example, in dealing with the subject of any depression, the author would have us con-

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(1) Ibid. p. 64

(2) Ibid. p. 65

sider the cycle of all depressions, studying the common causes, the common phases of their duration, and the common elements in overcoming all depressions of the United States from 1819 through the final depression of 1929. Needless to say, Mr. Fahrney merely scratches the surface of the difficulties of history teaching; he sees many evils, but only one solution for one of the evils.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND SOCIAL STUDIES

In September, 1929, the Research Bulletin of the National Education Association had as its title "Curriculum Studies in the Social Sciences".[1] This bulletin went very thoroughly into the various problems of the social studies, and as they relate specifically to the teaching of history, they will be set down here.

Among the first problems to be considered was:

> Shall the scientific or the guessing method prevail in selecting the content of the social studies?[2]

The answer, of course, was obvious, and it was found that the scientific was gaining ground.

Then was asked:

> Can the problems of citizenship be determined with precision?[3]

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(1) John K. Norton, Research Director, Curriculum Studies in the Social Sciences from Vitalizing the High School Curriculum. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, September, 1929.

(2) Ibid. p. 206

(3) Ibid. p. 206

Four means of determining these problems were found: 1. Analyze the topics and the problems discussed in the press; 2. Consult lay citizens concerning their problems; 3. Consult political platforms for an expression of national problems; 4. Consult the statements of thinkers and specialists in the study of society. Doubtless this last source would provide the best (though not always the most popular) problems.

In continuing the thought of the first problem, these questions were asked:

> How can the content of the social studies be determined? What facts have the greatest social value?[1]

The only means of determining those facts of greatest social value are: 1. Their occurrence in the press; 2. Their occurrence in books and encyclopedia articles; 3. The judgment of experts as to what facts are socially valuable. Human experience and knowledge in each field is very great; but the socially valuable facts are fortunately comparatively few, and with proper study can be determined as needs arise.

Facts and problems for the social studies can be scientifically determined, but should vital social issues be taken up by high school classes? This is a burning question among many teachers and administrators; but the Research Bulletin has a most comforting answer.

> It is believed that there is a place in the high school for such a consideration of issues as will encourage and foster the habit of reason and unbiased judgment. In a situation where the search is for the

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(1) Ibid. p. 207-208

> truth, where all the available data are marshaled and duly studied, where no preconceived views are imposed and each individual is urged toward a carefully deliberated conclusion of his own - this is truly to be in the atmosphere of the scientific spirit. ... The introduction of live issues lends vitality to the work of the school; it helps to develop intelligent opinions among pupils on the issues that perplex the society in which they live.[1]

This is a timely and encouraging piece of research, but once more the teacher and the student are baffled by a real failure to understand just what is asked of those who study and of those who teach any of the social sciences. A panacea for the evils of living seems to be demanded of all the social studies, and history must share its part of the burden. But how? The National Council for the Social Studies appointed a special committee in 1929 to study the problem; magazines of pedagogy hurl unlimited criticism at social studies teachers; even the lay press and the public make their share of the general discontent; but no one has as yet told definitely and concisely all the evils, their cause, or their cure. To realize that teachers and educators are truly aroused to their problem, one has only to skim the pages of, for a single example, "The Social Studies" during a year to note the demands for real change in the teaching of the much-abused subject of history. In the year 1936 "The Social Studies" had twenty-seven different articles encouraging changes to be made in the pedagogy of history or the social sciences, and only one article that still saw more good than evil in the old method

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(1) Ibid. p. 208

of "history for history's sake." [1]

THE NEW ENGLAND HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

In 1935 a committee from the New England History Teachers' Association under the chairmanship of Blanche A. Cheney of the State Teachers College in Lowell, Massachusetts, published "A Syllabus in American History and Problems of American Democracy for Secondary Schools." The purpose of this course of study is "to fit pupils directly for intelligent and responsive participation in solving the problems now confronting our nation".[2] The work is based on the needs of democratic society;

> A better understanding of the difficult social, industrial, political and international problems of our rapidly changing civilization ... .
>
> A deeper sense of personal obligation and responsibility ... .
>
> A broad and tolerant outlook which will tend to break down the barriers of provincialism and prejudice, and build up a demand for truth and for sufficient evidence upon which to base judgments.
>
> The spirit and habit of cooperation in promoting the good life for all.
>
> Unselfish devotion to the common good expressed in the disposition and ability to serve.[3]

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(1) Carleton J. H. Hayes, History and the Present, The Social Studies, February, 1936, p.77.

(2) A Syllabus in American History and Problems of American Democracy for Secondary Schools by a Committee of the New England History Teachers' Association, Blanche A. Cheney, chairman, 1935, p. 1.

(3) Ibid. p. 1

Teachers must achieve these objectives by relating teaching to life, by choosing subject matter in terms of social needs, by conducting the classroom on democratic procedures.[1]

The content of the suggested course in American history is organized in large units. The colonial period is mentioned in summary fashion, the national period is planned more carefully, and the period since the Civil War is greatly emphasized.[2] The unit outlines are planned to guide the teacher in organizing the work for the class; the pupils will work out their own summaries. The problem questions, projects, and activities are likewise suggestive and for the use only of the teacher. Complete reference lists are given from which the teacher may assign or direct readings consistent with the abilities of the pupils. Much stress is laid on the outcome for the units; for the outcomes "set forth the effect of the new learning on the pupils' thinking, feeling, and acting".[3]

The Syllabus is a stimulating piece of vital research and invaluable to the teacher in practice. However, a strong foundation of knowledge would seem to be necessary before the pupil could gain the most from this method of teaching. If the class is organized to study facts in their proper historical relationships for two-thirds of the year, the Syllabus will provide an excellent guide for serious problem work.[4]

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(1) Ibid. p. 5

(2) Ibid. p. 31

(3) Ibid. p. 32

(4) Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining, Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools, p. 106.

CHAPTER III

THE PRESENT SITUATION

A brief summary of the present situation might easily comprise the subject for an entire thesis, but a few obvious statements can here be made. Teachers are bewildered by the conflicting claims of leading educators, some of whom are so conservative that they want history taught only for its own sake; while others insist that history's place in the curriculum shall be conditioned by its ability to further civic needs or even a collective mode of life. In this thesis the popular terms "left" and "right" have been used to designate the liberal and the conservative influence respectively.

INFLUENCE OF THE "LEFT"

Our so-called "liberal" thinkers differ very much among themselves, seemingly having only one basic thought in common; i.e., that something must be done to remedy many of the present evils in the teaching of history and the social sciences. Some content themselves with simple criticisms of the social effects of teaching as shown in existing disorders, the prevalence of wars, depressions, lack of political interest, public graft, and so forth. Joy E. Morgan of the Journal of the National Education Association, while offering just criticisms in a wise philosophy to be found throughout the pages of the Journal, offers little of a constructive nature in correcting the evils he sees rampant.

James Truslow Adams[1] and David Snedden[2] have both called on the teacher to train the pupils to have open well-informed minds free from prejudice and emotional thinking; to use all intellectual tools from reference books to logical thought; and to take an interest in present-day problems and their solutions. Others like George S. Counts[3] and Harold O. Rugg[4] would by means of indoctrination, lead the future citizens of the United States away from current evils to better living together under a new "collectivism". These philosophers believe that society today is wrong and only by presenting, and striving as a society to attain, Utopia can we hope to overcome present-day evils. Like Harold O. Rugg[5] many realist thinkers insist upon the reconstruction of education so that it will be built upon the problems and needs of the people, and of such a nature that it will develop a creative philosophy consistent with the new civilization. The past has occupied too much of history; the future must also be considered. Ideals of thought and action have been imposed upon the impressionable minds of pupils when it has been impossible to find unremitting obedience to these ideals in the lives and characters of our leaders either in the

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(1) Can Teachers Bring About the New Society?

(2) Civic Education, or Educational Sociology, pp.540-550, or Sociological Determination of Objectives in Education, pp. 215-250.

(3) Social Foundations of Education, pp. 1-6.

(4) American Life and the School Curriculum, pp. 296-299.

(5) Ibid. pp. 296-299.

past or in the present. Usually the absent and the departed have been expurgated until they have lost all semblance to realism.

To the schoolman, the extreme radical is as fully impractical as the extreme conservative. Such liberals as Lyle Ashby[1] and Henry Johnson[2] would have teachers show social evils only for the purpose of correcting them; but others like Frankwood Williams[3] would have all evils exposed for the purpose of attacking the system that would permit them to exist. But with proper organization the schools can protect themselves from the whip of radicalism or the inert paralysis of ultra conservatism and adapt their work to the needs of democracy.

DOMINANCE OF THE "RIGHT" IN PRACTICE

Too many teachers and administrators still cling tenaciously to the old factual "history for history's sake".[4] The reasons for this are many, but perhaps the most cogent is that it is dangerous to write or to teach history "with a motive" other than the quite harmless, but not always accurate or practical, motives assigned to this subject by a creduluous public. The public wants well-informed, critical citizens to be molded in the schools, but is seldom willing to permit educators a carte

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(1) The Widening Path of Education, National Education Magazine, May, 1934.

(2) The Teaching of History, Chapters I and II in particular.

(3) Russia Can Teach Us. Progressive Education, January,1933.

(4) R. R. Fahrney, Vitalizing the Teaching of History, The Social Studies, February, 1934, pp. 64-69.

blanche in the task of attaining these ends. Restrictions of one sort or another are placed through custom, through actual mandate, or through outspoken demands of civic groups.

> If we examine the groups that are striving to influence education, we shall find that most of them are animated by honest motives. The exceptions to this generalization are found principally in those powerful economic interests that, to escape the payment of taxes or because of their fear that the wide diffusion of knowledge may be a threat to their entrenched economic positions, seek, through propaganda and through pressure on school officials and state legislatures, to beat down school expenditures and thus bring about a drastic curtailment of the program of public education. There is abundant evidence of the existence in these parlous years of this selfish and sinister attack on public education and all that it stands for. On the other hand, it is equally true that many pressure groups seeking to influence education are strong advocates of adequate schools. The Daughters of the American Revolution and the Socialist party, the American Legion and the American Peace Society, are all advocates of public education, though they would direct it to different social ends. And this is a fact of major importance in the development of a grand strategy of education.[1]

Within the classroom itself there are many reasons why the average teacher finds it best to teach factual history only. In a study of classroom difficulties, Miss Van Bibber found that out of fifteen hundred teachers included in her survey, six hundred and twenty-seven declared that their academic freedom was restricted.[2] Many teachers are themselves so conservative that they do not realize that there are restrictions in effect

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(1) Jesse H. Newlon, Public Opinion and Education, Thirteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the N.E.A., p. 146.

(2) Lena C. Van Bibber, An Exploratory Study of Specific Class-Room Difficulties in the Teaching of History and Other Social Studies.

either upon themselves or upon their more outspoken colleagues; consequently it is difficult to estimate how complete a lack of academic freedom actually exists.[1]

The greatest difficulty found in the classroom as indicated by the teachers who reported to Miss Van Bibber, is inadequacy of the text.[2] The protests are included under such headings as "too condensed", "too abstract lacking concrete illustration"; "too advanced"; "obscure;" "poor organization;" and "bias". Henry Johnson demands that each type of textbook be judged for its usefulness by the purpose with which it was written and with which it is used.[3] Perhaps the most serious impediment to good teaching is the text written with a definite bias, as such a book is usable only when opposite views on corresponding subjects are required. Under the caption of "poor organization" many grievances against a book can be found, some of them more legitimate than others; so that this as a heading is not entirely satisfactory. An "obscure" text is seldom of much good to either the teacher or the class and the sooner discarded the better. The "abstract" and the "advanced" texts are an undoubted nuisance, particularly for a class that is only average, or below, in ability; and although it is possible to make satisfactory use of such books, they entail much needless work on the part of the pupils

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(1) Clifford Kirkpatrick, Social Studies in Relation to Social Change, The Social Studies, April and May, 1935. pp. 302-306.

(2) Op. Cit. p. 25

(3) Teaching of History in the Elementary and Secondary Schools, p.

and the teacher. The teacher who complains of "too condensed" a text may possibly be evading his duty by teaching only according to the book.

Over twelve hundred out of a possible twenty-five hundred teachers complained of the lack of a suitable library for reference books and supplementary materials.[1] Again Henry Johnson would take exception to this complaint, as in his "Teaching of History" he cites many convenient ways of acquiring a satisfactory library at a very slight cost.[2]

In criticizing their respective courses of study, only a very few teachers condemned the general plan as being unprogressive, but a goodly number did report on the shortness of time for an efficient handling of the topics. Many reported that the topics were too great in number thus demanding too much detail or too large a field to be covered in the time allowed. An appreciable number also criticized the content of the course of study as being poor, though just what was meant by "poor content" was not clear.[3]

The children who approach their work are frequently handicapped by many forces beyond their control. At times they are too immature for many of the problems taken up in secondary school history. Others enter the school from homes lacking any cultural heritage where often only a foreign tongue is spoken. Most frequently of all, however, the pupils are hampered by ingrained

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(1) Op. Cit. p. 26.

(2) Op. Cit. pp.

(3) Op. Cit. p. 26.

prejudices, political, social, or religious. Many boys and girls do not know how to study or are hampered by unsatisfactory conditions for home study. Then there are all the handicaps imposed by ineffectual training:- weakness in reading ability; inadequate background generally; inadequate background in history, geography, and political science specifically; inability to organize or to see relationships; and finally, inability to formulate objectives.[1]

This is a tremendous array of difficulties confronting the history teacher; and added to these are the impediments found in the teacher himself. There are the difficulties arising from inadequacy of scholarship and the infinite difficulties from inadequacy of method. Is it any wonder that the history teacher, faced with so many dilemmas, has had recourse to nothing but the mastery of bald facts from a dead past? Is it any wonder that the idea of picturing the past as the precursor of the present and of the future has met with considerable practical opposition within the ranks?

THE CONTRAST ILLUSTRATED

> Leadership in education...has been much concerned with improving the efficiency of the existing school, but it has been too little inclined to ask the fundamental question as to whether the existing school is providing the type of education that should be provided for Americans in this critical period. It is the failure of the profession to comprehend the relations of educational problems to broader social problems, and its absorption in the technical and mechanical aspects of education, that explains the fact that education has been so much drifting with the tide of events in the last generation.

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(1) Ibid. p. 26.

> The profession must critically examine not only its own practices but the American tradition, the inexorable trends in American life, and, in the light of this examination, formulate a social-educational policy. ... The formulation of a social-educational policy is, or should be, a vast cooperative effort involving the entire public, but more especially social scientists, social philosophers, students of education, educational administrators, and teachers. ... Refusal to act means that the school will but reflect the status quo.[1]

No fixed dogmas can prepare for the future. Since the social life of children is continuous with that of adults, they find that the content of study and of decent habits is predetermined for them by adults. Unless educators challenge the large scale injustices of the world these injustices will be perpetuated through the children while they are still in the hands of teachers.[2]

Industry is strongly organized in America and exerts great pressure on the national life. Education must likewise be strongly organized partly to combat the ulterior motives and self-seeking practices of industry, and partly to make its influence felt in the social, political, and economic fields of the nation. However, education cannot organize for the purpose of self-aggrandizement or exploitation of any group; it must organize only for the purpose of advancing from theory into practice the principles of democracy.

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(1) Jesse H. Newlon, The Teaching Profession & Social Policy, from Social Change and Education, Thirteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the N.E.A., p. 158.

(2) G. A. Coe, Shall We Indoctrinate?, Progressive Education, March, 1933, pp. 140-143.

> The formulation of a social-educational policy is, or should be, a vast cooperative effort involving the entire public, but more especially social scientists, social philosophers, students of education, educational administrators, and teachers. ... If the teaching profession would make its influence felt, it must combine into a great and effective organization. Unorganized, the profession will be pushed aside and disregarded by the forces that control in America today. But to say that the profession should be realistic in marshalling and exercising power in the conflict of interest groups, does not mean that the profession should resort to indefensible technics of propaganda...that it should ever take advantage of, or attempt in any way to exploit the public. In the nature of the case, the cause of education would be ruined by such a procedure, for it is entirely antithethical to the very concept of education. But the profession has great resources upon which it may draw without resort to such tactics. It can exert influence in the end far more powerful than paid propaganda or political chicanery. ... The approach of the education profession to the public should be an educational approach, but it should, nevertheless, be a most vigorous approach.[1]

LACK OF TRAINED TEACHERS

In choosing a teacher for a position, Clifford Kirkpatrick finds that the less aggressive personality has been chosen in the past; although the depression has had the beneficent effect of thrusting into the ranks people who are "doers and thinkers", who are inclined to look with misgiving and impatience upon our quondam policy of passive security.[2] "The teacher," says Kirkpatrick, "<u>should</u> be the kind of person who <u>would</u> have prestige."[3]

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(1) Jesse H. Newlon, The Teaching Profession and Social Policy, The Thirteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendents, Washington, D.C.: N.E.A. of the U.S. pp. 158-160.

(2) Clifford Kirkpatrick, Social Studies in Relation to Social Change, The Social Studies, April and May, 1935 pp. 302-305.

(3) Ibid. p. 305.

How well are teachers prepared and selected for their work? A study of their training for the subjects they teach often shows very inadequate preparation.[1] Practically all teachers have been assigned subjects to teach in which they have had little or no instruction; particularly in this true when new courses are being introduced into a curriculum of any school, or in the small high school. Many teachers must change their subjects often, and a few in the course of years make a complete round of the curriculum. Of course, this situation has its effect in the actual training of teachers in the teachers' colleges. In respect to the social studies alone the following criticisms were made by Professor Hutson:[2]

> 1. Teacher-training schools do not recognize the relatedness of the social studies and they seldom train their graduates to teach them in their entirety.
>
> 2. The Teachers' background varies widely; some having specialized to a great extent in a particular field, and others having had many general courses dealing not simply with history, but with its related subjects such as political science and economics.
>
> 3. Teachers are not often chosen for their particular knowledge of a field. Having majored in mathematics they may be assigned to teach economics; or having studied political science carefully, they may be assigned to ancient history.

Colleges and schools of education must plan their courses with a single objective in mind: Train prospective teachers who can guide pupils in a changing order.[3] If teachers are to do

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(1) Percival W. Hutson, The Scholarship of Teachers in Secondary Schools, pp. 12-62.

(2) Op. Cit. pp. 63-86.

(3) W. W. Theisen, The Problem of Teachers for the New Education, Thirteenth Year Book, pp. 164-187.

their work properly, they must have better guidance as students in the matter of curriculum choices. The following recommendations are valuable for the social studies student:[1]

1. Two or three survey courses are advisable such as, American History, a general course in European history, and a choice of a general course in world history or one in Ancient history. These should serve as an aid to the beginning teacher and should be taught with that objective in view.

2. Survey courses in economics, political science, and civics or sociology should also be taken.

3. Specialization in any branch should follow only when adequate foundations have been laid in general courses.

4. Courses in methods, philosophy of education, and practice teaching are, naturally, vital to the beginning teacher and to the teacher in long practice.

The social studies put very heavy requirements on the instructor for they are constantly changing as society changes.[2] Regardless of the adequacy of his training in college, the teacher in service must keep himself under unremitting study. While he must not actually interpret the changing world to his pupils, he must guide them to see the need for interpretation by and for themselves. But in order to guide, the teacher must himself be able to find his own way through the maze of modern complexities in the social order. The teacher must do more than

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(1) Percival H. Hutson, The Scholarship of Teachers in Secondary Schools, pp. 144-153.

(2) Jas. T. Adams, Can Teachers Bring About the New Society?

read the newspaper; he must be able to follow a problem from day to day as it appears in the press and he must be able to interpret its significance with some accuracy. He must not simply follow the drift of events; he should feel confident at times to forecast the most obvious and to understand the trend of national and world events. Reliable daily, weekly, and monthly journals should be readily familiar, as well as professional magazines that will give valued assistance in classroom practice and theory.

We can speak at great length on the need of teachers carefully trained in their respective fields; we can urge them to continue their professional studies in the years following their first job. But degrees in arts, or science, or education do not, and cannot, make a teacher in any of the social studies.[1] The truth seldom seriously impairs the life of any individual, yet teachers often seek to paint life in sweet alluring colors. Children are led to seek beauty in life by the simple process of teaching that all life is beautiful. A teacher's security of position, his modest but sufficient financial emoluments, his daily contact with the expurgated lives and achievements of great men, have frequently made him a firm believer in the goodness of this world. Few teachers have failed to imbibe somewhat, at least, the ideals and aspirations of the young people under their care. In short, few teachers are hard-headed materialists. Take, for example, a few statements picked at random from the

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(1) E. A. Fitzpatrick, The Scholarship of Teachers in Secondary Schools, pp. 30-37.

remarks of teachers in typical city schools:[1]

(A high school history teacher in a large city)

> I fail to see how the policies of any president can seriously affect business. The president is in office for four years; a business operates over a period of many years.

(The assistant superintendent of schools in this same system)

> Regardless of the training or aptitude of a man, he cannot foretell the economic outcome of any political bias. There is no connection between politics and economics.

(An elementary teacher)

> It is immaterial to me whether the NRA fails or not. I prefer to have prices lower because I can buy more with my salary.

(A junior high school teacher of history)

> Now that the United States has gone off the gold standard our Liberty Bonds are valueless.

(A college professor of economics)

> The banks have shown their desire to aid business by having an extremely low rate of interest. It is the National Securities Act that has throttled business.

Naive as most of these statements are, they are not so revealing as the statements and opinions expressed by pupils and accepted by their instructors:

> The influx of foreigners after the Civil War was much larger and therefore morals were weakened.

> (World War) Neutrality was impossible to keep because our citizens were killed and we wanted justice.

> Europe regarded our entrance into the World War as a godsend. France and England needed our men because sources were exhausted. Funds were also needed badly.

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(1) These are remarks made by teachers in Massachusetts schools and colleges, and noted on various occasions by the writer of the thesis.

> I think the World War was the natural outcome of Germany's thirst for more and more power. Every country was arming rapidly, so everyone was ready when Germany was.

Pupils "listen to what we say and ignore what we teach" declares Frankwood Williams.[1] As a result, many adolescents have had a quiet smile at the expense of a teacher who inadvertently expressed a biased opinion on a controversial matter. On the other hand, the friendship and sympathy of one or several pupils may be lost by the teacher who carelessly tramples on the sensibilities of those who have acquired definite concepts in life. For example, the teacher who would say of Washington, "The Father of his country was no ordinary laborer's son, but rather the carefully-trained son of a gentleman;" might conceivably cause to spring up in the minds of laborers' children a real resentment not merely against the teacher, but against Washington as well.

However difficult it may be, educators must take unto themselves the task of changing age-old habits of thought and action; but to do so successfully they must modify the process of teaching, the training of their teachers, and the demands to be made of pupils and teachers in the classroom.[2] The prospective social studies teacher must have all the requisitions of any successful teacher in service, background of scholarship and

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(1) Frankwood Williams, Russia Can Teach Us, Progressive Education, January, 1933, p. 9.

(2) W. W. Theisen, Teachers for the New Education, Thirteenth Yearbook, pp. 184-186.

pedagogy, attractive personality, good health, and executive ability; but he must have, in addition, the many-sided personality of the well-educated man, good insight, good understanding, and a real interest in human welfare. He must be well-balanced mentally with the capacity to hold class interest in controversial matters without allowing himself or the class to bend to the sway of demagoguery.[1] He must be willing to lead, but not to force; to help, but not to compel; to guide, but not to indoctrinate. He must accept the responsibility of showing right and wrong, of presenting all sides of a question, of motivating interest, of inspiring thought; and only within the secret realm of his own silent thoughts may he reach a personal conclusion; outwardly he must remain in the position of the conscientious moderator.

CLASSROOM PROCEDURES

> The social sciences have not yet come to the stage where they have developed instructional techniques peculiarly their own. The teaching of the social studies is still largely teaching; it is not a special or unique type of classroom work. Methods of teaching used in social science courses, as well as elsewhere, include the lecture, textbook, socialized recitation, problem, project, contract, supervised study, and the unit methods. Each of these has its advantages, limitations, special functions, and special cautions or devices for effective application.[2]

The lecture method is the oldest, but its age has not served to keep it from disrepute, as too many critics have declared that teachers are hereby enabled to take up too large a

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(1) George A. Coe, Shall We Indoctrinate? Progressive Education, March, 1933. pp. 140-141. Also: But Should We Indoctrinate, William A. Van Til Educational Method, November, 1935, pp. 88-91.

(2) Della Goode Fancler and Claude C. Crawford, Teaching the Social Studies, p. 162.

portion of class time. Actually, however, the lecture

> ...has a part to play in the secondary school, but it must be used with discretion. It demands mental activity on the part of the pupil.[1]

Teachers have found it a valuable aid in giving an overview upon introducing a new unit of work.[2] Frequently pupils in a short lecture can be assisted in gaining information that would otherwise necessitate hours of research. It can serve to direct and supplement class readings and provide a background for more intelligent pupil activity. An inspiring lecture arouses interest, and even a prosaic lecture can explain an assignment or summarize a unit of work.

The textbook method is most frequently employed and usually infers the memorization of textbook facts. The method today

> ...may be summarized as follows: The teacher assigns a few pages of the textbook; the pupils memorize the facts presented in those pages; and then on the next day the teacher examines the class orally to see if the pupils can reproduce the substance of the facts they have memorized. If any of the pupils see relationship between the facts, they do so in spite of the teacher rather than through his aid.[3]

However, properly handled, the textbook method can be used to insure good success in teaching.[4] The assignments from the text can be so definite that pupils will know exactly what to so. The

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(1) Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining, Teaching the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools, p. 78.

(2) Ibid. pp. 79-80.

(3) Ibid. p. 84.

(4) Ibid. pp. 86-87.

facts learned can then be interpreted in the class period by the teacher and the pupils. Undoubtedly both pupils and teacher often become slaves of the text; but it should be the duty of the teacher first to challenge the inaccuracies and the viewpoints expressed rather than to give classes training in servile acceptance of the work of any author.

Much confusion exists as to the exact meaning of a project, but a workable definition seems to be that a project is any worthwhile task that the pupil accepts and feels as his own.[1] Naturally this offers a wide latitude of activity, but its very latitude limits its acceptance in a secondary course of history study. Dramatics, sand-tables, drawings, and other projects illustrating historical facts are used to best advantage in elementary and junior high study; debates, forum groups, class and club activities conducted on parliamentary procedures, are a few of the better projects for senior high school work.

The problem method emphasizes mental conclusions that are drawn from any activity.[2] The entire course of study may be so arranged that short problems will be found in the daily lesson and will be readily solved; or the course may be built altogether upon problems. In the latter case care must be taken to challenge the mind of the pupil else the study will degenerate into following a topical outline. Problems that arise in class can be solved as a class or a group project. Some schools

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(1) Ibid. p. 102

(2) Ibid.pp.103-112.

devote two-thirds of the year to assimilating a background of facts and the remainder of the year to problems based on those facts. Frequently several groups work independently of each other on solutions, and then compare the results of their work.

The individual pupil receives the most help for his particular problem in supervised study; for here the teacher gives help where and when it is most needed. Some schools provide conference periods for weak pupils; others provide a coach teacher for the purpose. The divided period of study and recitation is much in favor even though it entails a longer school day through the extension of the class periods.

The socialized recitation is conducted under the supervision of the teacher and the direction of a student chairman. The chairman prepares a plan of recitation and discussion of the day's assignment and calls upon members of the group for reports. Additions and corrections are made and questions are proposed voluntarily by the class. The method is particularly good for oral reports and current events. Properly conducted the method develops a group consciousness and gives training in leadership and cooperation.

Unitary history is receiving much attention.

> We might emphasize that the division of a course into its significant aspects, large enough to be significant and small enough to be seen as a whole, is a step in the right direction in the teaching of the social studies. The human mind is too limited to grasp the significance of a maze of factual material, especially if unrelated. The relationships must be presented one with the other. This is the only way

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> the social studies can fulfill their function of enabling youth to understand the world in which he lives.[1]

Henry Morrison's five steps form the foundation of all unit study today.[2]

1. Exploration - Here the teacher determines the background of study of the pupil. Sometimes an oral or written quiz is necessary; again a class discussion is all that is required. This first step prepares the pupil for new material.

2. Presentation - The teacher lectures on the major essentials of the unit, then tests to learn if the fundamentals are assimilated. If required, the teacher must again present and retest those who have not mastered the essentials.

3. Assimilation - The pupils read, write, study and consult with the teacher or each other. The method used is that of supervised study on definite laboratory (i.e. problem) procedure.

4. Organization - The pupils write a logical and convincing outline to show understanding.

5. Recitation - Floor talks are given in summary of the unit study or on various problems or collateral readings in the unit.

The Morrison plan as a whole deals with the mastery of definite subject matter; but in history the mastery would have

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(1) Ibid. pp. 198-199.

(2) Henry C. Morrison, The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School. Chapter X.

to be an understanding of historical fact subject to the inevitable change of facts learned later in life. The method demands a high type of teaching; in particular it calls for the ability to select suitable assimilative material and to discard irrelevant material. In unskilled hands it can degenerate into the passive following of a topical outline.

Other classroom procedures, particularly modifications and extensions of the Morrison plan, might easily be included; but methods are only a part of the story of history teaching. It is particularly important that history teachers know why they teach; for if they know why, they can organize what they teach in a way that will best express their purpose.

CHAPTER IV

OBJECTIVES IN STUDYING AMERICAN HISTORY

Educators have long had definite objectives in general education, but history has not yet devised objectives that can be truly said to outline for pupil or teacher the specific aims that contribute to the more general and broader aims of all education. In discussing education generally, Fancler and Crawford declared:[1]

> Every school must make some decision concerning the motives to which to appeal in stimulating and guiding the process of learning. At no point can the school assume complete neutrality and at the same time become a concrete functioning reality. It is concerned with a growing organism; and growth must have direction. The determination of this direction is by far the most crucial of all educational problems.

How shall these objectives be determined? Edgar Bruce Wesley said:[2]

> Objectives were originally selected on the basis of a simple observation of the needs of the situation. As the situation grew in complexity it was no longer easy to evaluate all the elements. The rise of measurements and the increased use of objective techniques led some educators to apply these methods to the problem of selecting objectives. ... However valuable these efforts might have been, they are no longer regarded as determinative. At best they are

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(1) Della Goode Fancler and Claude C. Crawford, Teaching the Social Studies, p. 536.

(2) Teaching the Social Studies, p. 169.

> suggestive. The selection of an objective is an act of choice, and choice rests upon a philosophy, a sense of value. In the last analysis, even when numerical procedures are used, objectives must rest upon the composite judgment of those who participate in selecting them.

What philosophy should predominate among those who would select history aims? Fancler and Crawford have found that[1]

> The writings of educational specialists and the published courses of study present a wide range of statements of objectives. These all stress the general aim of socialization or improvement of citizenship. They suggest the use of the social studies as agencies for social betterment, social progress, or social reconstruction. This is to be accomplished by adjusting the individual's attitudes to the requirements of group life and by training him in the skills required for effective social cooperation.

David Snedden wants history in the schools primarily because "it will contribute to civic appreciations, powers, especially as these will be needed in the years ahead."[2]

Unfortunately teachers cannot turn to any particular list of aims and objectives that has the approval of most educators and historians, for no such list has as yet been formed. Two lists, however, do deserve special consideration at this point; the first by Charles A. Beard; and the second by Edgar Bruce Wesley.

In his "Nature of the Social Sciences", Beard listed many objectives that are included in the aims of all education, such as the need for personal and community health, appreciation

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(1) Della Goode Fancler and Claude C. Crawford, Teaching the Social Studies, p. 81.

(2) David Snedden, Educational Sociology. p. 549.

of art and letters, etc., which can be readily seen even from cursory examination not to belong to the province of history.[1] By omitting these and other irrelevant aims, Beard has presented a list of objectives that deserves earnest consideration. An edited list follows:

Acquisition of skills

1. Skill in methods of obtaining access to information (N.B. Use of libraries, encyclopedias, etc., is a problem for English teachers; but use of historical sources is a part of history teaching.)

2. Skill in scientific method ... inquiring spirit, patience, exactness, weighing evidence, tentative and precise conclusions (i.e. in respect to historical data).

Acquisition of attitudes that promote welfare of individuals and the commonwealth

1. General life attitudes
   a. Respect for rights and opinions of others
   b. Zeal for truth of particular situations
   c. Pride in achievements of individuals, communities, America, and mankind.
   d. Admiration for heroic and disinterested deeds
   e. Faith in human powers for improvement of individuals and communities
   f. Vivid sense of social responsibility
   g. Interest in contemporary affairs
   h. Desire to participate in contemporary affairs

2. Patriotism
   a. Reasoned affection for native land as distinguished from tribal prejudices
   b. Appreciation of national achievements
   c. Sympathetic understanding of national powers and ideals
   d. Religious and political tolerance
   e. Critical fairness in partisan politics
   f. Recognition of national and local shortcomings
   g. Understanding of misuse of patriotic phrases and labels
   h. Discriminating between special and national interests

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(1) Nature of the Social Sciences, Charles A. Beard, pp. 227-230.

3. Catholicity of spirit in world affairs
   a. Appreciation of other communities and nationalities
   b. Willingness to examine fairly proposals of other national governments
   c. Recognition of values inherent in peaceful relations of nations

Cultural allegiances

1. The worth of human life apart from pecuniary and class standards

2. The worth of work-efficient and creative craftsmanship and conditions favorable to it

3. Right to individuality in life - freedom from mass and standardizing pressures

4. The worth of growth in individual powers

5. Community values and obligations

6. Liberty and toleration

Esthetic appreciation - for the enrichment of life

Sympathetic understanding of the manifold relations of esthetics to life and labor

Special powers of leadership

1. Independence and strength of purpose

2. Will-power and courage

3. Alertness, initiative, powers of observing situations

4. Imagination- capacity to compare, contrast, dissect, combine and construct

5. Creativeness- power to formulate, invent, propose, advocate, take risks, and direct

6. Watchfulness for opportunities and understanding of conditions and possibilities of choice.

The objectives of Edgar Bruce Wesley are given without any form of editing:[1]

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(1) Edgar Bruce Wesley, Teaching the Social Studies, p. 171.

Boston University
School of Education
Library

> The following...objectives are ... rigidly restricted to those (1) that seem to be in harmony with the nature of the content, (2) that are peculiar to the subject, (3) to the attainment of which the specified subjects can make a definite, though not exclusive, contribution, or (4) that seem to be appropriate because of their frequent mention.

Objectives in Studying History

1. To develop an appreciation of our social heritage
2. To learn the techniques of finding materials
3. To learn the historical method
4. To develop a love of historical reading
5. To develop a scientific attitude
6. To develop a capacity of suspended judgment
7. To acquire a perspective for understanding contemporary issues
8. To learn the facts necessary for an understanding of current writings and discussions
9. To acquire a sense of time
10. To understand relationships
11. To understand generalizations
12. To develop a reasoned basis for patriotism
13. To broaden and extend interests and sympathies
14. To facilitate the process of synthesizing
15. To learn and understand instances of social, economic, and political processes
16. To develop intelligent citizenship
17. To promote international understanding

Naturally, one immediately jumps to the conclusion upon comparing the objectives of these two men, that Beard has erred in looking for history to overcome all the evils now inherent in society; and that Wesley has erred in demanding too little from history save in a vague indeterminate fashion that would permit a teacher to include as much or as little in his teachings as he is inclined to include. Following Wesley's technique for choosing objectives, rephrasing Beard's objectives so as to obtain greater conciseness and more pertinent materials, and consulting the objectives of other educators and historians, have given the following aims:[1]

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(1) Della Goode Fancler and Claude C. Crawford, Teaching the Social Studies, pp. 39-84

Objectives in Studying American History

I. Specific Understandings to be developed

A. The continuously changing nature of society: how-why-whither
B. The institutions of American society
   1. System of government
      a. Comparison of democracy with monarchy, Communism, Naziism, Fascism
      b. Advantages and disadvantages as shown in the comparison
   2. System of justice
   3. Values inherent in those American institutions that are peculiar to American life and thought
   4. Shortages in American institutions
      a. Causes
      b. Possible remedies
C. The meaning of democracy
D. The functions of industrialism
   1. Its relation to capital
   2. Its relation to labor
   3. Its relation to government
E. Economic facts and principles that give rise to political thought and action
F. Place of the nation in world relationships

II. Specific attitudes to be developed

A. Wholesome appreciation of national social accomplishments
   1. Liberty
   2. Abolition of slavery
   3. Peace
   4. Republican and democratic institutions
   5. The "common man" and class society in the United States
   6. Liberation of women
   7. Social movements and reforms
   8. "Right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness", right to work, social security
   9. Greater protection of children
   10. Racial amalgamation
   11. Politics - social controls of government

B. Wholesome appreciation of national leaders
   1. Pioneers
   2. Statesmen
   3. Warriors
   4. Inventors
   5. Reformers
   6. Other leaders and builders

C. Such respect for differing racial, religious, and political institutions as would tend to destroy prejudice

D. Justice for all nations and persons

E. Spirit of adventure in solving problems of government

F. A deep abiding patriotism based on understanding American life, government, and principles

III. Specific Skills to be developed

A. Ability to collect data showing varying viewpoints

B. Ability to analyze materials

C. Ability to compare historical facts

D. Ability to form personal opinions on historical matter

SPECIFIC UNDERSTANDINGS TO BE DEVELOPED

Teachers of American history must attempt to develop in the future citizens of the nation specific understandings, specific attitudes, and specific skills.[1] The Commission on the Social Studies states that:

> The main function of the social sciences is the acquisition of accurate knowledge of, and informed insight into, man and society; that of social science instruction is the transmission of such knowledge and insight, with attendant skills and loyalties, to the individuals composing society.[2]

CHANGING NATURE OF SOCIETY

"Times change" or "The old town ain't what she used to

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(1) Edgar Dawson, Teaching the Social Studies, p. 25

(2) Conclusions and Recommendations, p. 7

be" do impress upon people that the world is constantly turning from one mode of life and thought to another. But few, indeed, realize the exact import of that simple word "change". Even a junior high school pupil will admit hesitantly that Columbus did come to a primeval land, but it is difficult for any young history student to realize that men lived in the same locality as he does at the present; and that while they were clothed, fed, and housed differently, and discoursed or thought in the light of their times, they were none the less acting just as most modern individuals would act under the same circumstances.

The past must be real. Past and present cannot be interchanged but imagination can be thrust into the past and life there can be viewed with the sympathy necessary to understanding.

All history is not found in books. Evidences of it are seen in everyday life; evidences that show clearly our dependence on the past. Hitler's march to the East thrust the German Kultur of 1914 and the vilified Versailles Treaty to the fore. The humming factory links the worker to the Industrial Revolution; the public school child sits at his desk only because men have worked and planned and studied that he might have the right to be there. The reality of present day history must be followed into the past; and the past must be linked with the present and projected into the future.

Reality often is in conflict with the ideal; but that does not exclude an appreciation of the ideals of all times. For just as the primeval forest gave way to farms and villages

and cities and nations; just so have the ideals of the past grown from the right to live, to the right to freedom and equality for a few, to the right to freedom and respect for all. If young people can know how closely ideals were approximated in the past, they can perhaps gauge how closely their own ideals can be approximated in present day life.

Teachers must also endeavor to impart a sense of time space.[1] Time sense in most pupils and even in adults is not clearly conceived. Yesterday is easily comprehended by all; last week becomes vaguer to many; one hundred years ago is nearly as indefinite as twenty-five hundred years ago to the uninitiated.

Time does not really change; it develops. The life that we have today is superficially different from the life of a hundred years ago; but actually it is the outgrowth of those earlier days just as the man is the outgrowth of the child. Today is impossible without the foundation laid in the past.

THE INSTITUTIONS OF AMERICAN SOCIETY

History teaches change, but more than that it teaches permanency. The American Constitution, American political and social institutions, and many American traditions have weathered the storms of change, giving to the nation a definite form and purpose.

Political science has long remained the unknown or misunderstood quantity in popular conceptions of government. The superficial

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(1) Henry Johnson, Teaching of History, pp. 47-48

marks of government are easily recognized, the policeman on the street, the governor who greets official visitors at the state house, the income tax demands, and any of the other innumerable forms that meet the citizen in the course of his daily duties. The fundamentals of the national Constitution are quite another story, and are little understood today by "John Q. Public". The Constitution was drafted in principle and in fact in the summer of 1787 by a group of statesmen who were chosen by the people for the task. The Constitution may be changed as need requires, but only under the conditions outlined in the original draft. In 1787 the needs of the individual states were apparent to the framers and formed the basis of their work, but the needs of the states have changed from year to year and so have the interpretations of the powers set forth in the Constitution changed to fit the needs of the times. Therefore, the solution for the needs and problems of today must be recognized by the spirit of the Constitution and the collective will of the American people.

> Quite obviously the structure, functions, and perdurance of a government depend upon certain conditions in its environing society; upon its coercive powers and instruments; upon an economic system capable of supplying the wealth to support the government; upon a certain degree of loyalty to it among the people or large classes of the people; upon psychological willingness to abide by the decisions of government rather than to resist them by violence; in short, upon discipline, upon social control, a measure of civilization. Accordingly, it is unreal to separate government from society and treat it as if it were something entirely apart from society.[1]

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(1) Charles A. Beard, A Charter for the Social Studies, p. 75.

After the establishment of government has been determined satisfactorily for the high school pupil, attention should be turned to the functions of government. Here the pupil must be presented with the widely divergent schools of thought dealing with the duties and the rights of government. Is the old laissez-faire adage correct that the best government is the least government? Or must government prowl deeply into the slightest detail of individual life and business? Pupils must be trained to compare the advantages and disadvantages of their government in comparison with other governments; they must be ready with praise of their own and be constantly on the lookout for its betterment. The trends of government should be closely watched by young people because they must help solve in a very short time many of the problems that are still in their infancy; such as:[1]

How shall we maintain a good balance between national control and state responsibility? Why is the question an important one?

What do we mean by lobbying? Is this a satisfactory method of bringing pressure to bear upon government?

What is the actual power possessed by the president? By Congressmen? How does our system of checks and balances affect such power?

These questions constitute only a very few of the most

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(1) Charles E. Merriam, Civic Education in the United States, pp. 4-5.

pertinent ones as related to our historical study of government.[1] Suffice to say that even here, in what we have been wont to look upon as the most static of American institutions, we must train our young people to watch for conservative change and steady progress that the worthless may be quietly discarded for the worthwhile in the American system of government.

In theory our system of justice is good and has served the nation well. However, it is well to remember that American jurisprudence was devised to serve a rural nation and has not advanced with the progress of the country from a frontier to an industrial nation. With the concentration of large numbers of people in cities, statutory crimes, (offenses against public health and safety) have increased from both wilful negligence and ignorance of the law.[2] Teachers can show the original aims and purposes of constitutional law, but no secondary school study of American law is complete without serious consideration of the sharp criticisms of such great statesmen and barristers as Elihu Root and Charles Evans Hughes. Young people should be encouraged to give time and thought to this problem. They should be inspired with the aims and purposes of justice; then they should examine the American system superficially, but none the less understandingly, to determine how these aims are being carried out and in what way they fail; finally they should be able to substitute tentative plans for the correction of abuses and

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(1)Ibid. pp. 122-124

(2) Charles A. Beard, Nature of the Social Sciences, pp.150-151.

the consummation of the original ideals of the law.

THE MEANING OF DEMOCRACY

Doubtless it is due mainly to Christianity with its insistence on the importance of the human soul that the idea of democracy came to be stressed in modern times. Naturally, if a man is equal with his fellow men before an all-understanding god, then he must be equal on earth with his fellow men. This has given rise to the firm belief that a man is an individual of considerable worth. He should not be subject to the control of an individual or of a group except as such control will advance either himself or his group. In America democracy is popularly expressed in the phrase, "the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness".

No doubt it is true"that the American people are committed to the democratic way of life", but it is likewise true that they have not yet attained a true democracy.[1] There are many reasons for the disparity between the ideals of democracy and the fulfillment of those ideals. Custom, limitations of nature, intelligence, racial, social and economic differences, all have great influence in creating inequalities among men. Many social barriers to complete democracy can be wiped out. Such vital social problems as, prohibition of legal intermarriage between black and white (which still exists in many states), immigration, property holding, and compulsory education should

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(1) John L. Childs, A preface to a New Philosophy of Education, Social Change and Education, 1935 Yearbook, Department of Superintendents, p. 115.

be considered by high school pupils. Industrial democracy presents the greatest number, perhaps, of unsettled problems; rapid economic development, mechanization of industry, increase of population, better living standards, over-consumption of natural resources, these and many other forces bewilder the world today with their apparent lack of solution. The ideal of communism has been the common ownership of all property for the use and progress of mankind. Socialism likewise advocates possession of goods and resources by the state. The corporate state, in opposition to a classless society, recognizes the place of each occupation and industry in the state and the importance and interdependence of the various classes in making up the state. Democracy must maintain the forms of government with proper power and prestige so as to obtain a just government for all; it will allow equal progress in social, economic, and scientific life in order to secure for all the advantages accruing to good industrial management, honest financial procedures, agricultural development, and the advancement of labor; it will never permit liberty, justice, or the good of mankind as a whole to be stifled or aborted. A pupil's concept of democracy will greatly influence his future ideals of what he may expect from government, and it will also influence his own individual attitude toward the demands of government. History pupils will do well to study carefully the genesis and evolution of democratic ideals in America and trace the changes in actual living effected primarily because of a better general perception of human rights.

THE FUNCTIONS OF INDUSTRIALISM

In colonial times a farming family was very nearly economically self-sustaining; but with the advance of the Industrial Revolution in America, household industries advanced to the factory and mill; the rural homes became the producers of raw materials only. Local self-reliance became increasingly difficult,for now the individual found himself more closely bound by the economic needs of the nation and more intimately affected by the vagaries of a far-distant market-place.

> The rise of factory industry, however, should not be regarded as an alien force descending upon the rural household from the outside. ... In a very genuine sense manufacture is the child of agriculture; the city is the offspring of the country; and the factory workers are the children of husbandmen. Moreover, when farmers' daughters migrated to the textile mills of Massachusetts in the first part of the nineteenth century, they merely continued to do under altered circumstances and in a more highly specialized way what their mothers and grandmothers had done before them.[1]

With the growth of the factory came the growth of specialization in production.

> Along with specialization has gone an extension of the market for each commodity produced; an extension of the market has made possible large-scale production; and large-scale production has stimulated the standardization and mechanization of the processes of manufacture. Industry, by placing machines of ever-increasing power at the disposal of agriculture, has released in corresponding proportion great numbers of the population from the raising of food and raw materials and shifted them to other departments of the economy, there to produce innumerable goods and services unknown a few generations ago.[2]

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(1) George S. Counts, The Social Foundations of Education p. 133

(2) Ibid. p. 134.

Today men tend to produce goods for sale other than for use; markets are no longer local, but state-wide, national, and international in scope. Industry, agriculture, and service occupations are interchangeably bound in a continuous exchange. Capital has subsidized industry, invention, labor, and individualism, even some forms of collectivism. Indeed, capital has threatened to become more powerful than government.

Only too often is private business concerned with profit; producing for profit; selling for profit; employing labor at lowest possible wages so as to maintain a larger margin of profit. Social reactions have not as yet entirely succeeded in replacing ethical or legal compulsions upon business for the profit motive.[1] Because machines are cheaper to maintain than men, industry has become rapidly mechanized but the leaders of industry frequently forget that while machines can produce many times the output of one man, they cannot consume a fraction of the goods of any individual worker. As a result, factories in the pre-defense days stood idle and millions were unemployed. The New Deal has not in itself succeeded in making any permanent reforms for the

> ...operation of the private business system, and the efficient administration of industry for human use, apparently signify two conflicting social procedures.

With the growth of domestic and foreign markets, labor unions increased in size, strength, and prerogatives. The profit motive of industry forced labor to solidify and seek protection of its interests by developing strength within its

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(1) John L. Childs, A Preface to a New Philosophy of Education, pp. 126-135.

ranks. This division caused many problems to arise, such as, disputes on tariff policy, labor disorders, and wide divergencies on economic policy.

> Neither the American farmer nor the American workman has been a radical as that term is understood in Europe. Indeed, as we look back at the issues for which they fought at various times in the second half of the nineteenth century, we see that for the most part they were essentially conservative. The terror aroused among the larger capitalists and by them transmitted to the smaller business men seems difficult to understand if it was genuine. What the larger capitalist feared, in fact, was the loss of one iota of his steadily increasing control over government and the means of piling up colossal wealth. The contest was not at all one between capitalists and socialists or communists, but between classes, both of whom were firmly committed to a belief in capitalism. It was between the big man and the little man, the grasper after excessive wealth and power and the man who demanded merely opportunity to make his living and live his life.[1]

The late nineteenth and the early twentieth centuries saw the establishment of labor's right to a decent and just wage for services rendered. With the advent of depressions, labor has been voicing its demand to the right to work. While the justice of this plea is generally accepted, the means of acceding to it have not yet been clearly defined by either government or industry. Labor history will doubtless record many attempts and many failures before a successful solution is eventually worked out by government, industry and labor.

Government intervention of some degree has always been a foregone conclusion in industry; but it has been welcomed only when industry has reached an impasse usually brought on by its

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(1) James Truslow Adams, The Epic of America, p. 320.

desire for more profits or by labor difficulties.[1] In the early nineteenth century, intervention most frequently took the form of currency legislation, protective tariffs, and road, river, and harbor improvements. After the Civil War came the great industrial expansion of the country, and with it greater government intervention. Cutthroat competition among the railroads finally led to the formation of the Interstate Commerce Commission in 1887 which, because of its undoubted service to both the railroads and the public, is in active operation today. Government intervention in the interests of the consumer have followed two theories:[2] 1. competition will do most to foster honesty in selling; 2. government must grant supervisory powers of administration to oversee industrial and trade activity. The Sherman Anti-Trust Law expressed most completely the opinion of government that monopolies were not to control any part of industry or its prices. However, the public is becoming increasingly dissatisfied with the protection that is wrung from the halls of Congress, and through consumers' cooperatives, the press, radio, and other agencies, is making insistent demands for greater protection and consequently, greater interference by government in industry.

In protecting the money interests of the public, the government has been thorough, for here all classes can be affected equally under inadequate laws; and today the federal

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(1) George S. Counts, Social Foundations of Education, pp. 421-455

(2) Ibid. pp. 424-425, pp. 429-432

government guards the depositor and the note holder with fairly strict laws. The plea is often made that "interference" by the government hampers business and banking; but it is to be noted that where more security is offered the investor, the greater is his inclination to trust his money to bankers and brokers.

> This rise of the national unity in economy, however, does not mean that character, enterprise, and a high sense of responsibility in individuals and families and communities has ceased to be a fundamental requisite in the ordering, the advancement and the enrichment of life in America. ... Individual, family, and community vitality must accompany the process of socialization if the great society is to continue and to make possible the enlargement and the refinement of life.[1]

There are many schools of economic thought; and each one is honestly descriptive of certain facts and processes, and yet each one contains definite theories that are merely conducive of class bias. The laissez-faire principle teaches that business in private hands is fundamentally sound; and although severe depressions do arise, they will automatically readjust themselves in the regular cycle of business enterprise. Collectivist economy teaches that planning must take the place of competition; and that only workers are worthy to be included in a society that exalts no man for either intrinsic or ulterior worth. The interventionist state endeavors to promote private business while enforcing proper protection of labor and a more equitable distribution of wealth. Planning and control are also an important feature of the interventionist state, for while private business is encouraged, it is not allowed to over-produce or upset the

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(1) Ibid. p. 455.

national economy. There are, then, these three schools of economic thought with which the history pupil should be acquainted. He, as well as his teacher, must realize the good and the bad inherent in each; he must know to what extent their principles have been carried out, either here or abroad, and what has been their worth to the greatest number of people. Undoubtedly the teacher will have his own theories of the extent to which government should go in regulating the economy of the nation, but the teacher will not plead for his own mode of thought, but will lead his pupils to demand as the product of their own reasoning that America shall actively enforce the theories of a democratic economy.

PLACE OF THE NATION IN WORLD RELATIONSHIPS

The United States has long endeavored to follow the advice of its first president to show "Friendship for all; entangling alliances with none". This nation had so many problems of democracy and economy and brand new political theory to work out that it had no time for the problems of the old world. America was a new nation and moved steadily westward carrying with its expansion its ideals, its theories, and its errors. There were no great reverberations in Europe as the red man was slowly pushed back, or as huge new territories were calmly added by purchase or by petty wars.[1] At last the end of the frontier was reached. The United States began to expand within the boundaries

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(1) Eugene F. Young, Is This Our Destiny? Condensed from "Powerful America" in the April, 1936 Reader's Digest pp. 64-65.

of the nation. When Europe became embroiled in a terrific conflict that was soon to engulf all the nations of the world either through actual participation or through the economic effects of neutrality, this nation became involved at first only through an incessant demand for its goods and its money, and then at last in the conflict itself.

America was vastly changed by this action for the mutation in practice naturally led to greater mutation in thought and planning for the future.

> Jerked out of our isolation into intensive world politics, we were unprepared to deal with the European masters of intrigue. ... For more than five years after the war the spectacle was presented of the most powerful nation on earth dealing with world affairs through "unofficial observers" who hung around the outer fringe of the League of Nations, proffering advice but never exerting authority.[1]

America lies between two oceans and has been almost unassailable from an attack that could successfully weaken her. America's strength, however, has been used many times since the World War to protect nations in need; as for example, the recognition of Soviet Russia came at the moment when Japan was preparing a march on Vladivostock; twice in 1921 simply by diplomatic pressure we succeeded in preventing Japan from taking advantage in the Pacific and, of course, our influence here in the western hemisphere is recognized by the Monroe Doctrine and by Pan-American conferences.[2] America and Great Britain are the last powerful nations still to be ruled with democratic principles;

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(1) Ibid. p. 64

(2) Ibid. pp. 68-69

we have common commercial, economic, and social interests; and because of these common interests we can easily effect tacit alliances from our intercommunity of spirit that will do much to protect the material and idealistic purposes of American democracy.

Eugene J. Young in his book, "Powerful America", calls upon this country to do police duty in the world in order that we may prevent both little and great catastrophes.

> Spoiled Americans would far rather continue comfortably to let others attend to the disorders of the world while they garner in benefits. But let no American deceive himself. That time is gone. If we have not learned sufficiently from our World War loss of ten or fifteen billions of treasure, from our great depression brought on by our refusal to face world facts practically, then destiny has other hard lessons for us. But if we do take up the responsibilities that have been prepared for us, then there is a good chance that we will reap great benefits for ourselves and pass them on to others.[1]

To continue the plea of those who would do away with America's "splendid isolation" it is well to consider that America has already gained experience in "police duty" among the nations to the south. Certainly police duty in the Caribbean and in the Americas has had its disadvantages; but it has also had its advantages as measured in dollars and cents. The United States are the creditors of the entire world, and repudiation of debt does not, and cannot, wipe out of existence that same debt. Not only is America a creditor, but it buys and sells in stupendous quantities all over the world. Can anyone deny the position of the banker in a community? Of the merchant or the industrialist? This country combines the prestige of all three in the community

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(1) Ibid. p. 71.

of nations and its desires and influence will react as powerfully among the nations as the desires and influence of capitalists in a factory town.

There is still a large and powerful element in the United States that oppose the entanglements of world trade, reciprocal treaties, and the like; urging that in their stead high protective tariffs shall prevail. "Splendid isolation" has always had a large and eager following among the citizens of this country, and certainly it demands a respectful hearing today.

Both theories and their implications must be presented to the pupils; and here once more the opinions of the teacher must be submerged in favor of encouraging individual thought on what is still a controversial topic of government.

SPECIFIC ATTITUDES TO BE DEVELOPED

Have American democratic principles and popular government given to the nation the progress and achievement that should be expected?

It is frequently well to stop in the classroom to check over the civic accomplishments of the body politic.

WHOLESOME APPRECIATION OF SOCIAL ACCOMPLISHMENTS

American civilization has attempted to keep four aspects of life well to the fore; that is, the political, the economic, the social, and the ethical. Undoubtedly one or the other of these has been forgotten from time to time; particularly have the social and the ethical been allowed to suffer; but in the national efforts to promote liberty, justice, and the general

welfare there has been a persistent return to these fundamental precepts.

Americans have long been proud of their efforts to maintain liberty. The education of children for the sole purpose of promoting the will of the state or the will of the masses has been abhorred. The individual is and has been the dominant figure in our civilization. An understanding of the rights and prerogatives of each human being within the boundaries of the nation shows that the lot of man can be improved by taking thought,

Slavery has been abolished. Although fragments of the social evils of slavery are still existent in this country today, social pressure, exerted mainly because of popular conceptions of liberty, will gradually eliminate this sore spot in American life.

It may truly be said that Americans are anxious to be at peace with their neighbors. While this country was being settled, the colonists were in a constant warfare with the Indian aborigines; European repercussions of trouble were frequently felt, as in the capture of trading vessels, in the French and Indian Wars, and in other difficulties. As a result, progress in the colonies was often retarded by war, and the colonists developed a just resentment against interference that resulted in a resort to arms. Although each generation in this country has seen or felt the effects of war, there has grown steadily a hesitancy and an unwillingness to enter war.[1] The longest unprotected

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(1) Charles A. Beard, Nature of Social Sciences, pp. 152-153.

border in the world lies between the United States and Canada; the Philippines have the privilege of independence if they wish it; and certainly the refusal of the United States at the close of the World War to accept reparations from the defeated nations should redound to their credit. Political, economic, or social convenience might easily be attributed to American generosity in any of the above cases, but a nation is progressing when it sees the political, economic, and social convenience of steering clear of war.

Perhaps the American ideal of democracy is to have a community where all men are respected simply because they are men; where a man's intrinsic worth is determined by his innate contributions to his fellows; where each and every individual can pull himself onto the highest planes of human endeavor simply by the force of his own strength of character and will-power; and where men work for the joy of the labor and not for material gains. As a matter of actual fact, " our society is based on principles of competition and conflict".[1] Andrew Jackson, Andrew Johnson, Abraham Lincoln, Charles Schwab, Andrew Carnegie, Henry Ford, and hundreds of other noted men rose"from the ranks" of commoners to be great and powerful men, but surely none can deny that they rose through competition and conflict, besting their enemies and approaching battle eagerly. But in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries men rose to power

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(1) John L. Childs, A Preface to a New Philosophy of Education, from Social Change and Education, 1935 Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, p. 132.

through their own abilities and the virtues of "rugged individualism" whereas the twentieth century is giving way rather wistfully to the acknowledgement that

> In any society those who have the property also have a disproportionate share of the power.[1]
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> At this point our national tradition makes it difficult for us to gain an understanding of the actual social situation. We have been trained to the idea that we live in a classless democratic society. It has been constantly stressed that in the United States all groups have an essential identity of interest. But contrary to our theory, modern industrialism has divided society into genuine economic classes. ... An actual oligarchy of wealth in the United States ... is today a primary social fact capable of statement in reasonably precise figures. Social realism demands that we accept it for what it is.[2]

It is perhaps too soon to state exactly what will be the outcome of economic classes in the nation, but the philosophy of "rugged individualism" has left its imprint on the national consciousness. Many people still believe in the possible elevation of the "common man". Better working hours and better working conditions have been slowly foisted upon all industry. The nation's unwillingness to adopt the Child Labor Amendment did not prevent the forcing of industrial protection for children under the now-defunct NRA and the recently passed Wages and Hours Bill. President Hoover in 1930 called the "White House Conference on Child Health and Protection" and from that Conference came the

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(1) Ibid. p. 134.

(2) Ibid. pp. 134-135.

famed "Children's Charter"[1] which laid down ideal standards of living and of education for children and therefore for adults.

Industrial enslavement of children and the industrial enslavement of women are looked upon with almost equal horror. Women have been gradually freed from social entanglements and are now accepted in many places in the business world. With the acquisition of the suffrage has come greater freedom in all walks of life until it seems as though time will remove all unnecessary barriers to the full enjoyment of living by women.

Full freedom of immigration into the United States as late as the early twentieth century left indelible marks on American culture.[2] "Americanization" laid a foundation of good will and appreciation of American life by the newcomers; but Americanization did not attempt to wipe out the homeland culture of newcomers, but rather to bring it into sympathy with New World experience. Thus was maintained a closer "spiritual relationship"[3] between the old and new communities.

The government of the United States is based on the participation of the individual citizen in its management and direction. From taking an active part in the New England town meeting to the election of the president, the duty of the citizen is clear-cut and definite, for republican and democratic institutions

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(1) Addresses and Abstracts of Committee Reports. The Children's Charter, pp. 46-48.

(2) Lyman Bryson, Recent Social Trends, from Social Change and Education, p. 55.

(3) Ibid. p. 55

will not function to the fullest extent without the active participation of every thinking voter. Representative government, the right to vote,as well as the duty to vote, the right to hold office, are all clearly the outgrowth of democratic principles; but the party primary, the referendum, and the recall are further means of control and check by which power and government are put into the hands of the electorate. The two-party system is an almost distinctly American institution by which national policies are determined and carried into effect. The frequent suggestions and efforts to stress a third and a fourth party have always failed for as the platforms of these minor parties have contained valuable policies for the nation, these policies have been adopted and incorporated into the platforms of the major parties; and from platform policies they have been transcribed into the laws of the nation. Many of these minor party pleas have taken up the protection of the worker through unemployment and old-age pensions; accident insurance, forty hour week, child labor, minimum wage scales, and many other forms of social and industrial assistance in both the state and the nation.

Frequently it is private enterprise and private agencies that effect social reforms throughout the nation such as the quondam prohibition amendment, protection of wild life, conservation of natural resources, slum removal, beautification of park and roadsides. Just to list a few of the reforms effected gives one pause for thought. Educational opportunities have increased from the force of social and economic pressure rather than from governmental demands. A new interest in national

planning for the good of the nation and of individuals is gaining daily prominence. The importance of recreation is stressed. The demand for greater protection of human health resulted in the passage of the new, if not perfect, Food and Drugs Act; and the demand for greater protection of investments resulted in the passage of the Federal Securities Act. The desire to conserve national resources and to provide for unemployed youths was given joint consideration in the formation of the Civilian Conservation Corps.

Social reforms accompany social movements. Centralization in cities has been steadily advancing since the disappearance of the American frontier, but with the advent of depression, government-fostered decentralization has been encouraged.

Mass production has almost of itself brought higher standards of living; for the products of the machine age, produced in tremendous quantities, have forced open markets in every scale of social life in order that the goods might be consumed and profits realized.

Centralization in government is becoming more and more an accepted fact due mainly to the aggrandizement in public opinion of the functions of good government and a "larger use of socialized wealth"[1]. For example, the federal government has undertaken such projects as the Tennessee Valley Authority, the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, and the Federal Housing Corporation, to check the costs and the profits of similar private corporations and at the same time to provide needed assistance

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(1) Ibid. p. 59

to large or small groups that could not be aided by private means.

Just as government has expanded in business, political, and economic control, so has it expanded in social control. Ever since the early days of the Republic the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness has gone unchallenged. But with the coming of depressions, the loss of work, and scarcity in the midst of abundance,has grown the conviction that men and women who have the will to work also have the right to work to earn their daily bread. This conviction has brought about the passage of our Social Security Act in which the national government by means of financial aid encourages the states to provide old age pensions, retirement pensions, and unemployment insurance.

It is a safe conclusion that laws and reforms are within the control of the electorate requiring only time, interest, and vigorous effort to effect needed change.

WHOLESOME APPRECIATION OF OUR LEADERS

America was founded by men of thought and vision who have handed on many of the motives and ideals that actuated their plans for the country. Many of the settlers who first came to the New World were imbued with a spirit of adventure, of justice, or of desire for a new order and correction of old abuses. A wilderness had to be conquered and settled; laws had to be made to fit in a new life; courage and justice were needed to carry on in a world that knew no law but that of ruthless depredation and the survival of the fittest. Statesmen came from the backwoods to pit their keenness against the greatest diplomats of the world and won many a victory with their "shirtsleeves diplomacy" that

knew little of the rules of mediation and negotiation as practiced in the courts of Europe. They made enduring laws for their own nation and established by their prudence and sagacity lasting modes of thought and conduct for the leaders who would attempt to carry on as the nation grew in size and power. American soldiers gave protection when it was most needed whether on the frontier or on the plains of Flanders; and the nation claims as its warriors those who fought with ideals and love of their native land whether under the Stars and Stripes of the Union or under the Stars and Bars of the Confederacy. Praise and honor, certainly, are the meed for the makers and builders and protectors of the nation, but equal due should be given the inventor and reformer, for it is their task to make life more pleasant for the everyday citizen. The inventor has frequently worked with toil and effort fully as great as that of any soldier, and many have pushed mankind far along the road to true democracy by making available to all, rich and poor alike, the necessities and many of the conveniences of life. The reformer, on the other hand, has attempted to effect a greater distribution of this world's goods, comforts, and conveniences among the people of all classes; nor has he worked with glory or with sympathy even from those whom he would help. Great industrialists, capitalists, philanthropists, and others have done their best for America, and the story of their lives form many an exciting chapter or book that may be read with immense profit and pleasure by the average high school student of history.

Just what is meant by "a wholesome appreciation of national

leaders? Shall teachers treat the national leaders like gods rather than men? Or shall they go to the other extreme and show them as being like the gods of Greece and Rome, great in virtue and great in vice? If boys and girls are to acquire an ability to judge their leaders in order to choose them properly at the polls, they must know what qualities and what qualifications to look for in each individual. The first thing to recognize in any person is the fact that he is a human being subject to the same influences that govern all men. If the failings of great historical characters are discussed, they must be considered in the light of the age in which they lived. Many teachers and historians condemn the cruel Spaniards for enslaving the Indians and forcing them to work the rich mines of Mexico and Peru for the benefit of their masters; but they mildly exclude discussion of the fact that the English killed the natives and usually stole their land. Some teachers, considering themselves "enlightened", will emphasize the wrongs committed by the early settlers, and will neglect to stress the long years of experience that are slowly impressing on men the realization that mankind brings progress for the individual only by bringing progress to all.

Americans are slowly coming to demand integrity from their leaders. A politician today can be closely watched; and although it is perfectly ethical to agree that he is running for office to benefit himself, still the general populace should be considered in the effective performance of his tasks. Radios, newspapers, keen political observers, and free access to information of all types are of assistance in the task of following the office

holder and in determining whether or not he is performing his duties as well as should be expected. Proper qualifications for the task are a vital necessity in this day of specialization in all forms of work, and the politician must be no exception; for the man should build up the office; the office should not build up the man. A prosperous business man was reproached for declaring himself in favor of the election of a notorious character who was running for mayor of his town. "Well," declared the business man mildly, "Mr. B. has proved himself a failure as a son, as a husband, as a father, as a business man, and as a citizen, but I shall vote for him just the same in the hope that being mayor of this city will make a man of him."

Every candidate should be able to make an exposition of the needs of the office he desires, present plans for the furtherance of his work, and prove to the satisfaction of the people that he is amply qualified for the task. By developing a habit of criticism in judging all would-be leaders, voters will do a great deal toward avoiding the pitfalls of demagoguery and propaganda that have done so much to hinder the rich and full development of American democracy.

JUSTICE FOR ALL NATIONS AND PERSONS[1]

Who is an American? Where can he be found? Who is that man on the street? Is he a Pole? A German? An Englishman? What is he doing in this land? Has he done anything for America that should justify his remaining on American soil, partaking of

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(1) This entire section is based upon notes taken in "School and Society" a course conducted at the School of Education, Boston University, by Prof. John Mahoney.

American privileges, working and living in America, perhaps working and living for America?

Before graduating from high school every boy and girl should know the contributions of all outstanding peoples and races in America, both in the past and in the present. Materials in race relations will permit pupils to know peoples better, to understand them because they see life from their angle. Race problems in America are frequently local rather than national. For example the Japanese problem is left by the East to California, but if ever serious trouble arose between the United States and Japan, the cause might easily be traced back to the lack of sympathy and understanding engendered by the local difficulty in the Far West.

Americans have been prone to stress what they feel is their own superiority or the superiority of the white race, or even the superiority of particular nations or groups within the white race. Common sense and science recognize that there are superior as well as inferior groups within every race. The insistence of racial groups in retaining their national customs and languages in the New World cannot be attributed to lack of intelligent sympathy with American progress and ideals, but simply a loyal clinging to the old because of love and familiarity. Instead of condemnation for this desire to keep to the old loyalties, Americans should welcome any evidence that will show that these people will not vacillate in their allegiance as freely as do those who adapt themselves too readily to change.

Teachers only too often are preachers. They present a

synthesis of many important facts instead of showing how those facts came to be. Outwardly they deplore prejudice in every form, but they do little in the classroom to show how prejudices arise or how they may be corrected. Prejudice, once learned or acquired, is an emotional reaction based upon scant knowledge of the true situation. A child in the fifth grade recently expressed a strong dislike of Chinamen. Asked why she felt so, she answered, "Because I can't understand what they say when they talk to me." So it is with most people; not understanding they show hatred and mistrust.

The Puritans of America have had, perhaps, more of their share of extreme condemnation and extreme approval than most other pioneer groups. On their arrival in this country they immediately placed political and social restriction on all those who did not join the Puritan church. But in coming to America they had been motivated by economic as well as religious needs, and had formed a company to defray their expenses to the New World. Can they then be criticized for wishing to keep the profits and the management of their enterprise in their own hands for as long as possible? Religious freedom did enter into the picture of pioneering, but not to the extent of economic or social motives. Naturally those people already here were not imbued with such an altruistic spirit that they could willingly watch newcomers to the land profit by and even exceed their efforts in bringing civilization to the wilderness. This attitude of suspicion of the stranger has persisted throughout the history of America; but just because men three hundred years ago

confused economy and politics with religion is no reason why people today should continue the error.

True democracy does not recognize any aristocracy, whether of birth, of intellect, of money, or of social position; nor does it permit toleration or condescension toward any group or individual. People wish to be respected for their true worth and for their contributions to society; they want to have their opinions listened to and considered whether their hearers approve their views or not. Democracy rests upon liberty, equality, and fraternity. Theoretically liberty is recognized as belonging to all men; and in America all men are free so long as they do not confuse their liberty with license. Equality is still imperfect in practice because of the overcrowded conditions in many courts of law and because of the prevalence of prejudice among various social groups; but this deficiency can be rectified with individual and collective effort. Fraternity, however, is not often desired among all classes of society. Fraternity means simply an honest desire to give your neighbor his due. Magnanimity of mind, heart, and hand toward all people are prerequisite to true fraternalism. All race and national groups in the United States have made definite cultural contributions to the nation; and these contributions can become a part of the general knowledge of high school history students. Once endowed with the ability to understand the cultural allegiances of the various racial groups in the nation, students (and adults) will develop a much needed spirit of fraternity toward all people both before the law and in their social relationships.

SANE PATRIOTISM

The development of sane patriotism is, of course, a function of all civic education; but American history can make a definite contribution to the growth of this attitude.[1] American history must teach the great principles of democracy, how these came into being, how they have aided the expansion of a better political order, how they influence American life and thought today, and how Americans are increasing their demands for the further utilization of democracy in their social and economic order. American patriotism necessitates that every citizen shall be thoroughly embued with the tenets of democracy and shall endeavor to carry out in his everyday living the teachings of the democratic ideal. He must do all in his power to further democracy, to stamp out all the weaknesses of the present order, and so to love America that he will not fail to see her errors in the light of her greatness.

The true patriot must be willing to live as well as to die for America; indeed, the willingness to live and live honestly and intelligently for America is of greater importance than the willingness to die. Every man is thrilled by the thought of doing battle to right wrong and succor the weak; but not every man is thrilled or even sees the need of working through hours of monotonous drudgery that would ultimately result in the passing of a law to benefit the weaker members of society,

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(1) George E. Astelle, What Shall Our Schools Teach as Patriotism? Educational Method, November 1935, pp. 72-80.

or the beautifying of a slum, or in forcing school authorities to permit a negro athlete of only second-rate ability to participate in school games, or in strengthening the friendships between racial groups in a city. There are many activities that should engage the time and effort of the truly patriotic man, but they are only too often drab and uninteresting, requiring true humility of mind, thought, and action, and giving little or no compensation save the consolation that comes from a sense of duty that has been done because it could not be left undone.

NEED FOR TRIAL AND ERROR IN GOVERNMENT.[1]

Education plans for the future. The errors of the past are simply a guide to work out present and future problems. Modern political groups are becoming more complex and intricate on the economic side; in addition they are becoming less static and are increasingly dynamic. The responsibilities of these political groups in guiding the destiny of the nation are burdensome; and due to the very uncertainty of their work it is difficult for them to attain their ends with ease and dispatch. The voting public, however, does not participate in the work of running the government as conscientiously as it should, and decidedly it is for the most part overly critical and unsympathetic with its leaders. On the other hand, there is frequently to be found a small group of stand-patters who regard the pronunciamentos of their party leaders as gospel

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(1) Lyman Bryson, Recent Social Trends, pp. 53-62 and Carroll Hill Wooddy, Recent Tendencies in Government, pp. 79-96 from Social Change and Education, 1935 Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association.

truth, and all those who are outside their party are simply outside the pale of human consideration. Naturally, both extremes are wrong as extremes so often are. Government needs criticism, but it needs earnest, far-seeing, constructive criticism that will lend sympathy to any program honestly conceived and adequately planned.

Today we are entering upon a new mode of living. Other than the Golden Rule there are few laws for working out this new life. A program adequate in 1921 would fail in 1941; a program that failed in 1921 might be exactly what the nation would need in 1941. In the secondary school our future citizens must be inured to the idea of change that will be expressed in a spirit of adventure in solving social, economic, or political problems; we must force a recognition of the necessity for trial and error in order to bring about a better living together of all peoples in all countries of the world.

SPECIFIC SKILLS TO BE DEVELOPED

> It should be clearly recognized that there is little use in setting up aims and objectives - either general or specific - unless definite and systematic plans are made to achieve them. In the past too much stress has been laid in the social studies upon the teaching of facts to the exclusion of training in reasoning; judgment, skills, and habits, as well as the development of attitudes and ideals.[1]

Activity on the part of the pupil rather than of the teacher is needed; and this activity should take the form of wide, independent

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(1) Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining, Teaching the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools, p. 51.

investigation and experimentation with the avowed purpose of developing the ability to compare relationships and form judgments.

> Our students must have a feeling for the continuity of experience and history, so that they may not expect the future to come like a rabbit from a magician's hat. They must also appreciate novelty, the unexpected and unique as a character of experience and history, past, present, and future. ...In free forum pupils must have a wealth of experience in intellectual treatment and consideration of every major issue and movement in modern life. ...Democracy and intelligence are correlative terms. ...Only through common intelligence can democracy pursue its purposes with hopes of success or even perpetuate itself. ...Scientific intelligence, generally disseminated, ...is the surest bulwark of our democracy.[1]

The study of American history must also help the pupil to develop those skills which will give him "a feeling for the continuity of experience and history", an appreciation of novelty, and the ability to participate in "free forum".

COLLECTION OF DATA SHOWING VARYING VIEWPOINTS

No doubt it is the function of the English department to teach the use of the library and reference materials, but it is the function of the social sciences to utilize this training to the fullest extent and to add definite training in purely social science sources and problems.

If the class has not established good reading habits, the task of the teacher will be more difficult. However, the teacher must expect to overcome such difficulties and in so far as the class has developed in fundamental reading ability, the teacher

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(1) George E. Axtelle Educational Method, What Shall Our Schools Teach as Patriotism?, pp. 78-80.

must give practice in the correct use of indices, tables of contents, encyclopedias and special reference books, card catalogues, government publications, newspaper editorials or special columns, general or trade periodicals, historical novels or essays, and source books such as biographies, memoirs, and special studies.[1] Any high school pupil should have no fear, on completion of his course in history, of making use of many different contributions on any given subject. He should be able, moreover, to organize with increasing facility his attack and method of procedure on the solution of any historical problem either within or outside the classroom. Of course, if a pupil has the ability to collect all necessary data to present an accurate picture of a problem, he will recognize that no picture is accurate until all sides of the problem are presented and studied. Bias in any form should be shunned and the pupil should be encouraged to overcome prejudices and personal inclinations in his search for scientific truth. However, he should also learn that many pictures, true in general form today, will be untrue or incapable of being applied in a similar situation at a later date. Constant study of many sources should be encouraged so that the ability to collect data on many sides of a question may develop into a life-time habit, for a

> ...method of study will remain long after most factual knowledge is forgotten... The development of correct study habits on the part of the pupils must be considered by the teacher in the same manner as any other outcome of teaching. ... Sufficient drill in study methods

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(1) Ibid, p. 42.

> must be given, as well as a gradual reduction of the guidance afforded the pupil as he progresses through the course. ...If this objective is accomplished, no matter how much or how little knowledge or information has been obtained from the course, a great deal has been accomplished for the pupil.[1]

ABILITY TO ANALYZE MATERIALS

The ability to analyze materials is directly based on the ability to collect and organize materials.

> The power of thinking and reasoning cannot be trained without the acquisition of facts. Not only are facts necessary for thinking and reasoning, but they must be so organized as to form clear associations. Thus, in order to reason, a large number of associated facts is essential.[2]

In the topical outline the pupil finds an important aid in analysis, for here he makes use of logical headings, discards irrelevant material, and emphasizes the major points used in the context.[3] Summaries in essay form demand ability to select and organize facts around the central theme, but such types of work are difficult to correct. However, summaries when read aloud and discussed by individual pupils, do offer an opportunity to compare and choose the most suitable.

Frequently, when an author presents his conclusions on the facts available to him, he actually though unwittingly is giving an incomplete or inaccurate picture; especially is this true when later events disclose an utterly different situation or

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(1) Ibid. p. 40

(2) Ibid. pp. 39-40.

(3) Howard R. Anderson, The Development of Basic Skills in the Social Studies, The Social Studies, Feb. 1936.

solution. The Monroe Doctrine has for over a century been accepted as a part of American foreign policy; yet editorial comments and interpretations of this Doctrine by scholars, statesmen, and politicians have varied with the decades. Yet a study of these comments and interpretations, if done superficially by a high school student, would provide an excellent opportunity to analyze historical data.

In directing the selection and analysis of source readings, the teacher's attitude must be impartial but should reflect the ability to distinguish between truth and propaganda, as well as between the relevant and the irrelevant. This ability should be transmitted to the pupils partly through the teacher's guidance and partly through experience in the proper choice of data. Open-mindedness in pupils is much to be desired and can be encouraged by seeing that all sides, particularly of a controversial problem, shall be presented.[1] But quantity of materials studied is not in itself a necessary pupil activity; rather the choice of materials is to be emphasized so that the pupil can most readily acquire many-sided pertinent information dealing with his problem.

In analyzing his material the pupil should be conscious of his source and the possible bias of the author. Whenever the opportunity arises, the pupil should know the philosophy that inspired the writer in his work. This does not mean that biased materials should never be used, but rather that they should be balanced by a diametrically opposite philosophy.

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(1) Howard R. Anderson, The Development of Basic Skills in the Social Studies, The Social Studies, February, 1936.

INFERENCES AND COMPARISONS

Once his materials are collected from many sources, analyzed for authoritativeness, and organized in pertinent sequence, the pupil is prepared to make use of the knowledge acquired.[1] He should be able to recognize in his collected data the causes for the problem involved and to see the relationship between the various parts of the problem.

Comparisons of incidents helps the student to see similarity of past and present events and builds up concepts of the importance of his problem. Comparison also helps the student in some instances to forecast possible future results that might follow the earlier event.

The practicality of developing this skill to infer and compare might be shown by a discussion of a current problem; such as

> Will the present Russo-German conflict have any immediate effect on strikes and sabotage in defense industries in the United States?

It is, of course, accepted that the United States is committed to a policy of preparedness for defense of the western hemisphere at this time and that the defense industries, aiming at maximum production, have been handicapped to a certain extent by strikes and sabotage under both pro-Nazi and Communist sympathizers. Little available information can at the moment be obtained on the situation in this country as the Russo-German conflict is of such recent origin; but a comparative situation arose in Europe within the past ten years; and from that situation

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(1) Howard R. Anderson, The Development of Basic Skills in the Social Studies, The Social Studies, Feb. 1936.

the pupil should be able to make a tentative guide for solution. Hitler and Stalin as protagonists of similar philosophies were bitter enemies. Their agents were busy disseminating anti-Nazi or anti-Communist propaganda along with their anti-democratic propaganda. Communism had had a head start in its appeal to labor and in its efforts to capture key positions in the various industries and public utilities. Naziism made a strong bid in business and trade relations. When the famous pact between Moscow and Berlin was made, the propaganda and activities of the two dictators were directed mainly against the democracies but not against each other. The sympathy now officially directed toward Russia by the United States government should result in a large measure toward the cessation of communist-inspired strikes and sabotage.

However, the tentative solution of this problem should but pave the way for the presentation of another problem: "Would the cessation of Communist subversive activities in the United States at the present time be an indication that this government has won the sympathetic admiration of Moscow?" Again it would be necessary to refer to the European scene. Stalin, after the beginning of hostilities between Russia and Germany, called on all Russian sympathizers to handicap the advance of the German army. Immediately there broke out in German occupied territories a tremendous amount of sabotage that proved to be most serious to the German police. From this the pupils should infer that in spite of the truce between the two dictators, Stalin maintained his force of agents and kept them in readiness for the time when

The teacher's prescriptions

he should need them. The pupils should also infer that a like situation now exists in this country and should refrain from over-indulgent sympathy for the philosophy that prevails in the government of invaded Russia.

ABILITY TO FORM PERSONAL OPINIONS

The integration of thought that will take place as the outcome of collecting and analyzing materials, infering and comparing results, should occur within the pupil's mind.[1] Preconceived views of the teacher should never be imposed. Indeed, the teacher should urge complete mental neutrality on the part of the pupils before beginning the study of any problem. Personal prejudice, parental beliefs, social distinctions should be thrown into the discard if a truly scientific attitude is to be attained. Without preconceived views to hamper the process of thought, the forming of opinion on any subject, if based on adequate selection and arrangement, will be simplified.[2]

Definite aid in forming opinions can be given by the teacher.[3] After a sample problem has been presented, the teacher may lecture on the various arguments that support or discredit or do not apply to the theme. The arguments should be rated as excellent, good, fair, or poor; and the conclusion should be directly based on the relative values of the arguments. In other

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(1) C. A. Harper, A Discussion of Research Technique for History Courses, The Social Studies, February, 1936.

(2) Baldwin Lee, Issues in the Social Studies, Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1928.

(3) John H. Herrick, The Evaluation of Certain Aspects of Thinking in the Social Studies.

instances, particularly when a current problem arises, such as the convoying of supplies to Great Britain in the second World War, the teacher should give the points of view of many commentators and persons of high authority and should then teach the class that the point of view which offers the most convincing arguments should be chosen. However, the class must be warned to substantiate their opinions. In a discussion of the problem following the teacher's lecture, the arguments should be rated only on their merits as arguments and not for the side they substantiate. In this way the pupils will be encouraged to choose only adequate arguments in their efforts to form justifiable conclusions.

Time alone will complete the sum total of knowledge on many current problems. It would be impossible to give an absolute answer to the question, "Is a strongly centralized government to be desired in the United States?" Pupils will learn that there is much experimenting to be done before many problems can be settled even in theory. "

> When insufficient data only are available, the ability to make tentative generalizations without bias or prejudice is an extremely important part of the training of high school pupils. Such abilities must be trained in order that pupils may be able to render constructive judgments and decisions about social relations, affairs, and problems.[1]

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(1) Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining, Teaching the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools. p. 40.

CHAPTER V

METHODS AND ACTIVITIES

Once the teacher has determined his educational objectives, he must consider what teaching methods and pupil activities will best develop his aims.

NEED FOR A STRONG FOUNDATION OF FACTS

History[1] is all that has happened in the past and that is happening today. Tradition, both oral and written, testifies to man's interest in, and provides a source of, historical information. Monuments built by man in ancient times help to keep alive his interest today. "I remember when" in the words of the oldest inhabitant can be the prelude to some bit of historical information and to the serious student has proved a valuable source for facts. Laws, decrees, charters, have all come down through the ages to challenge the curiosity and the social clarity of men today. Historians have taken all these primary sources and breathed into them a form and life by their own interpretations that might otherwise be lacking to ordinary understanding. These interpretations have gradually evolved what is known as the historical method in which criticisms of historical facts are made to help in the preparation of a comprehensive grouping of related knowledge. Significant facts, curious facts, or authoritative facts are collected

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(1 cf) The Teaching of History in the Elementary and Secondary Schools by Henry Johnson, Chapter 1, pp. 1 - 18. MacMillan Co., New York, 1924

and arranged, usually in chronological order for aesthetic effect, or for use in business, education, politics, or religion. Facts may be selected for their importance in showing what the past was, of how it came to be what it was, and of how the present grew out of it.

Obviously it is impossible to know all the facts in any historical field; therefore it is necessary to emphasize those themes of perennial, rather than of local or temporary, significance. Some definite knowledge is a requirement for good citizenship; for without it individual, clear thought and judgment are impossible.[1] Everyday references to historical data, such as the Industrial Revolution, the Monroe Doctrine, and the sterling characters of certain national leaders, should be readily understood and appreciated during the lifetime of every individual. Such knowledge, moreover contributes to the sympathy and discernment that are a concomitant part of good societal relations.

Henry Johnson asks that the greater part of school history be presented as ready-made information, for assured knowledge is an even greater consolation to the

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(1 cf) The Teaching of the Soc. St. in Secondary Schools by Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining, p. 38 - 39, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc. 1935

pupil than to the teacher; for history to the uninitiated can be confusing, and in the confusion it is a simple matter to become lost in a maze of related or unrelated data.[2]

OUTLINE OF COURSE OF STUDY

Comprehensiveness and balance are needed in building a strong foundation of facts for high school students.[1] The objectives of the course should determine the spirit in which the facts will be interpreted; but the objectives in themselves will not provide a sufficient guide for the pupils in the intricacies of historical data. Just what guide is advocated by the teacher depends to a large extent on the teaching method employed. Topical outlines, the assignment sheets of the laboratory procedure, written summaries of lectures and overviews, unit assignments, or a concrete basal text containing only the essentials of the course, may each be used to bring order out of chaos in the pupil's mind. Any guide mentioned here, to be effective, must include the most important facts in their proper perspective so that the student may have a ready reference for what he hopes to learn in his year of study.

(2 cf) The Teaching of History in the Elementary and Secondary Schools by Henry Johnson, pp. 360 - 361. MacMillan Company, New York, 1924

(1 cf) The Social Studies Curriculum, 14th Yearbook of the Dept. of Superintendence of the National Education Asso. of the U.S., pp. 92 - 93, Washington, D.C. 1936

USE OF BASAL TEXT[1]

The study of history in most of our schools means the preparation of lessons in the textbook. There are three types of texts: (1) The skeleton or syllabus of essential facts; (2) Texts that develop the outline but leave room for further expansion of thought; (3) Self-sufficient books that contain a full course of study. Most American history books are of the manual type that develop the outline but leave room for further expansion on the part of the pupil or the teacher.

A textbook should be definite, concrete, and accurate. Such teaching aids as concise and pertinent questions, outlines, and references for collateral reading are helpful. The visual aids, maps, charts and pictures, should fit the subject matter and be well printed. A complete table of contents and index are necessities. Most textbooks lack literary distinction but they must be grammatical, clear, connected, and interesting.

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(1) This section is based largely on "The Teaching of History in the Elementary and Secondary Schools" by Henry Johnson, Chapter XI, "Textbooks in History" and Chapter XII, "The Use of Textbooks"

Where the unit and laboratory methods of teaching are employed, the outline in the form of the assignment sheet is an absolute requirement, for here the basal text, if used, becomes merely an efficient and readily available check and summary. But by and large the text is most frequently used as the sine qua non of the usual high school course. "It may be read with the class and treated as a guiding thread in the unfolding of a fuller story. It may be brought in only at the close of the story and treated as a summary. Required readings outside the text may to an ever increasing extent be substituted for contributions by the teacher, and the pupil may be left, more and more, to his own devices in passing from the textbook outline to the fuller account and back again to the textbook. The textbook is not the lesson. It is only a guide to a larger fund of knowledge and a summary of knowledge after it has been acquired".[1]

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

"The textbook is not the lesson". How much of a stumbling block are those few simple words to many teachers! A good text with its carefully planned chapters, its comprehensive questions, its interesting

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(1) The Teaching of History, Henry Johnson, pp. 291 - 292

pictures, and its finely phrased expression - what ordinary teacher can improve on these? Thus questions the teacher who neglects the fact that all, and any, parts of the social studies demand a training for adult civic activity. Thus also question school administrators and school boards who limit the aims and objectives of history teaching to the imparting of patriotism.

Every man, woman, and child is faced with problems to solve, and his ability to solve his problems is conditioned by various factors such as native intelligence, environment, experience, and actual knowledge of conditions pertaining to the problem. As history unfolds in the present it offers definite topics and themes for thought and study which soon resolve into real problems capable of solution. If the history course is planned to give civic training, it must include problems of civic life and give practice in their solution.[1]

Obviously it is impossible to know all the facts in any historical subject, but some definite knowledge is a necessity for good citizenship for without it

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(1 cf) A Social Studies Unit that Developed Pupils' Powers of Problem Solving by Thomas C. Barham, Jr. The Clearing House, September 1937, Vol. 12, No. 1

individual, clear thought and judgment are impossible.[1] Knowledge contributes to the sympathy and understanding that are a concomitant part of good societal relations. Everyday references to historical data, such as the Industrial Revolution, the Monroe Doctrine, and the sterling character of certain national leaders, should be readily appreciated during the lifetime of every individual. "The greater part of school history must be presented as ready-made information but there should be illustrations of the historical method sufficient to indicate the general nature of the problems behind organized history, and sufficient to give some definite training in the solution of such problems."[2]

The most important advantages of the problem method are here given in the words of Arthur and David Bining:[3]

1. "It conforms to life. Everyone is confronted with problems all through life. Why should we not master the technique for solving problems in the school?

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(1) The Teaching of the Social Studies in Secondary Schools by Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining. p. 38 - 39

(2 cf) The Teaching of History in the Elementary and Secondary Schools by Henry Johnson, pp. 360 - 361. The MacMillan Company, New York, 1924

(3) The Teaching of the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools by Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining, pp. 116 - 117. McGraw - Hill Book Co., Inc. 1935

2. "It arouses interest and hence aids in the educative process.

3. "It leads pupils to form judgments. This is of vital importance in a democracy where the success of government rests in the final analysis with the people.

4. "It makes for pupil activity - -

5. "It challenges the intellect of the pupil rather than his memory.

6. "It does much to destroy the credulous belief in the printed page. In solving the problem the teacher can place different types of material before the pupil.

7. "It enables the pupil to get thought from the printed page.

8. "It enables the pupil to evaluate the printed page, thereby distinguishing between primary and secondary sources, or between what is authentic and what is not.

9. "It developes the traits of open-mindedness and tolerance. The pupil finds that there is more than one side to a question."

However, the Binings do not make a plea to teach history only by the problem method.[1] Problems are not the only factors of life and should not constitute the only factors of a history course. Moreover, no one method has as yet been devised to serve as the panacea of teaching ills. Rather all methods must be used.

(1 cf) Applied Citizenship, p. 117

"Project" is an indefinite term much used by educators to include many forms of pupil activity. In this thesis it will be used to apply to any activity that purposes to tap the interests of pupils by appealing to life situations.[2]

In actual practice pupils find problems presented and discussed in the class text; they hear them brought into class recitations. Sometimes the entire course is organized on the problem method. Problems and projects are an integral part of the laboratory and unit methods. In short, problems may be presented only incidentally; or they may be a carefully planned part of the course of study.

IMPORTANCE OF CAREFUL PLANNING

A working background of knowledge is necessary for problem solving for the relation of the problem in "the scheme of history" must be understood. "There is much educational advantage in such a procedure as this, for the pupil not only receives the benefit from solving the problem, but the important facts and principles that were brought out in the - - - course are seen in

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(2 cf) The Project Method by Samuel Tenenbaum, School and Society, June 17, 1939

new relations and therefore are better understood."[1]

Sometimes the class will develop and present the problem for solution. Where these problems come spontaneously and yet fit in the planned work, they should be used. But by and large the teacher should lead in the presentation of problems. The teacher should have specific objectives to attain and the problems shoud be carefully planned to fulfill specific objectives before they are given to the class.[2]

The pupil must be led by the teacher to accept the problem as his own and as a challenge to his thought. The teacher must then state the problem in definite form so that it can be easily and frequently referred to by both the class and the instructor. Keeping the problem constantly in mind helps clear thought and deep concentration. In selecting the materials to solve the problem the class will need to know where and how to find their sources. But perhaps the greatest difficulty will be in the desire of the pupils to select too great a quantity of sources, or too small a quantity, or references that

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(1) Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools, Arthur Biting and David H. Bining, pp. 108 - 109

(2) Ibid p. 107

tend to deal with one side only of the question. The teacher must, of course, guide the class in a judicious choice that will encourage open-mindedness and suspended judgment. Pupils should be encouraged to reach definite, clear solutions. Even when, as in the case of contemporary problems, a true solution cannot be reached, there should be some concise conclusions reached.[1]

BASIS FOR SELECTION

In choosing problems to present to the class, the needs of the individual, both as pupil and as citizen, and the needs of the community as a whole should be considered. Educators are constantly pleading for a "reality of learning situations resembling as nearly as possible the problems met in life."[2]

Materials which do not help the pupil to understand the present should be largely eliminated. "For permanent retention, only important facts should be mastered, not as ends in themselves, but as a means of thinking, reasoning, and drawing conclusions regarding the problems of society."[3]

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(1) Ibid pp. 112 - 114

(2) The Social Studies Curriculum - 14th Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, p. 94

(3)(N.B. This is a monograph)
A Syllabus in American History and Problems of American Democracy for Secondary Schools by a committee of the N.E. History Teachers' Asso., p. 6

Moreover, it is better to choose fewer problems in favor of more intensive treatment than to have many problems with incomplete understandings.

"American values must be emphasized. - - In other words (problems as wellas) the content must be selected and organized in such a way as to deepen the understanding and appreciation of human relations. The teacher leads the future citizen to realize his obligations to society and his opportunities for service as well as his rights."[1]

The teacher, therefore, must consider the present and future experiences of the pupils in choosing and fitting subject matter and problems to their interests, abilities and ultimate civic needs.[2]

Types of Problems

History is especially adapted to the use of problems. Historical events frequently present problems that offer a distinct challenge to thought. For instance, the usual

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(1) Ibid, p. 8

(2) Ibid, p. 8

text does not as a rule offer a complete answer to the question: "How was the American Revolution financed?" On the other hand, history presents problems that faced the people in the past, and which are important to the student only as guides for the solution of possible present or future problems of a like nature. Such a problem might be: "Why did Abraham Lincoln issue the Emancipation Proclamation?" Finally we have present day problems which have not been solved but which demand considerable thought before a solution can be attempted by the governing powers. "Shall the United States enter the war now?" is the great problem of the moment now under discussion in classroom, parlor, federal office, camp, and battlefield.

Need for Flexibility

Individuals are not equal in abilities, and the school "Must have a program fitted to the capabilities of its pupils. The adjustment of teaching methods to the needs of pupils of different ability levels must also rest on the recognition that regardless of ability, the basic needs of all pupils are very similar."[1]

Pupils vary greatly in the speed with which they learn.[2] For that reason problems must be so flexible

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(1) George E. Hill - The Psychological Basis for Methods in Teaching Pupils of Different Ability Levels - The Social Studies, Oct. 1938, p. 252

(2) Ibid, p. 254

in nature that the bright student can contribute considerably more to its solution than can the average or slow student. In discussing the financing of the American Revolution, the slow pupil might sum up his contributions by describing the difficulties of the Congress in collecting taxes and the aid given by France. The average pupil would add a more detailed summary containing the above points but also including the reasons why the states instead of the people were taxed, and the assurances that the first Secretary of the Treasury of the United States gave that the Revolutionary debts would be paid. The superior child should be able to master all these points and in addition give the life story of one or more of the leading Revolutionary financiers, and describe the extent of the financial assistance from France, Spain, and Holland.

The bright pupil likes the problem method best and works well on a broad unit of work. The slow pupil, however, can work well on smaller assignments or simpler aspects of the same problem. Bright pupils have many interests and quickly acquire more; slow pupils must be stimulated to adopt interests. Bright pupils transfer their learnings quickly; slow pupils must be taught specific transfers.[1]

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(1) Ibid. p. 254.

Need for Vital Problems

Not only must problems be so flexible in arrangement that all pupils can contribute to the solution, but they must receive their importance in the classroom from their importance in real life.[1] Slave ships are no longer a blot on American society, but as the negro migrates to all parts of the union the economic and social status of the negro is becoming a nation-wide problem. The story of the negro is important to all pupils; the average group will be interested in the present situation and a few immediate social remedies; the superior group must dwell mainly on cause and effect, i.e. why there is a negro problem and what to do about it; and the slow group would consider the problem under such headings as: Negro Education; Great Negroes; Legal Restrictions on Southern Negroes.

Problems are best chosen to fit the immediate needs of the community. In a farming community comprised mainly of people of Swedish descent, the negro problem might conceivably be more remote than a consideration of the A.A.A. Or a domestic science group would be far more

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(1) A Syllabus in American History and Problems of American Democracy for Secondary Schools, p. 8

interested in national customs and costumes than in a comparison of naval strength during each of the great American wars.

METHOD OF ASSIGNING PROBLEMS

Teachers of history must determine whether or not their pupils know how to study. To determine the individual and class levels of reading skills a simple reading test on the text can be given. A paragraph may be assigned to be read silently; objective questions on the content and summary of the paragraph may be asked; the test may be timed by allowing ninety percent of the class to finish before stopping the work. This simple procedure will show how practised the class and individuals are in finding facts and in summarizing a small unit. A section might then be read orally to the group and tested with objective questions and summaries; this will indicate ability to grasp facts through auditory memory and will serve as a gauge of class retention of facts to be gained in discussion and recitation. These types of tests might well be given from time to time throughout the year always with work of increasing difficulty to determine the highest level at which the group and individuals can work well. If the teacher finds the class as a whole is deficient in reading ability, then he must

give such assistance as will enable the class to work independently. This will necessitate much supervised study and much group work. Considerable practice should be given in finding the main thought of a paragraph, in making topical outlines, in reading to locate material, and in reading to form a background of general information.[1]

Once a pupil knows how to read, he is ready to make use of reference materials. An assignment like the following might be given:

Should the Aztec civilization have been destroyed?

1. What type of man was Cortez? Give a few salient facts on his life to prove your contention.
2. How well was his army equipped?
3. Who were his allies? Why did they agree to assist him?
4. Describe life in Mexico City as Cortez saw it. What influence did religion exert on the life of the people?
5. Was it necessary to destroy the civilization of Mexico in order to conquer the country? Why?
6. What immediate monetary reward did Spain gain from its conquest?
7. What was the influence of so much gold pouring into the mother country?

With these questions the exact references in the text and in the collateral reading should be given.[2]

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(1) Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools - Henry Johnson - Chapter XII - the Use of Textbooks, pp. 296 - 311

(2) Ibid, p. 298

But as the class becomes proficient in the use of source materials, less aid in the exact location of facts should be offered; eventually only the main question with a few sub-questions as guides need be given. The final step means, of course, that the class has been drilled in the use of indices, outlines, encyclopedias, card catalogues, and source readings in American history. Such progress in a year might be expected from an average class that an assignment like the following would become an easy task of fulfillment.

> What were the policies of Theodore Roosevelt that helped bring on a schism in the Republican Party and led eventually to the formation of a third party? Make a comprehensive list and be ready to defend your choice orally. In what respects did this third party express Roosevelt's theories and satisfy a portion of public opinion?

Pupils vary greatly in their ability to concentrate and to learn a large unit. Superior children like to work out problems; slow children prefer clearly outlined tasks on minimal essentials. Independent research aided by specific directions is the forte of a superior pupil; but the slow child needs constant reference to an immediate aim. All pupils, however, need guidance especially when a new task is assigned. The extent to which the teacher will give guidance in individual cases will depend upon the interest in the problem and

the ability of the pupil.[1]

Once a teacher determines upon the need for a particular problem and presents it to the class, he must endeavor to make the pupils interested in it and accept it as their own. The teacher and class may discuss the problem, do research as a group, organize the material as a group, have a class discussion, and then summarize either individually or as a group. On the other hand, the teacher may give the class the directions for the work and conduct the periods according to the laboratroy method.

Teachers who find their academic freedom restricted by local conditions sometimes find certain phases of problem work sharply criticized by parents, editors, or influential citizens. Their first impulse undoubtedly is to teach history for the facts it contains of for encouraging patriotism. Certainly such a course would be easiest. However, pupils should know how valuable history is in the solution of current problems and they should know the problem method of study.[2] In such a situation the teacher should proceed with the planning

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(1) George E. Hill - The Psychological Basis for Methods in Teaching Pupils of Different Ability Levels - The Social Studies - Oct. 1938, p. 254

(2) Edith M. Selberg and J. Darrell Barnard
Teaching Pupils the Method for Solving Problems
Educational Method May 1937, p. 414

and organization of a unit taking care to eliminate all minor problems which might be the subject of controversy with local public opinion. In this way pupils will learn the problem method, its organization, use of many sources, and development of specific skills; a method, surely, which will be of far greater value than the elimination of a minor controversial issue.

Problems to be Required

Pupils vary greatly in their ability to do problems; yet all should know the problem method.[1] The teacher, therefore, should require certain problems to be completed, in their entirety, by every individual. Such problems would be, of course, those for which there is the greatest need in the classroom or in the community; or which carry out most fully the aims and objectives of the course of study.

A class may make an imcomplete use of periodicals or newspapers in correlating present with past historical events. In such an instance a required unit on the use of periodicals and newspapers would be in order. Sometimes a group will depend too much on social circumstances or on the theories of family and friends for their philosophy of current crucial problems. They will jabber about "the

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(1) Ibid, p. 413

rights of man" and "American democracy" in terms of catch words and slogans. In that event the teacher should require the group to work on a problem involving the democratic principles of American life.

Where specific needs of a class are not all absorbing, the teacher should base the requirements for problem study upon the aims of the course as these will give necessary coherence and unity to this phase of the work.

Further requirements of individual needs and differences.

Where pupils work at widely different levels of ability, all pupils should not expect to do the same amount of work. Once the minimal essentials of a course of study are defined, the slow pupils should accept it as their level of achievement but the more capable should accept it as the starting point for additional study. This additional study can best be directed and guided through carefully planned problems. The superior student needs guidance as well as the slow, though not so immediate or personal guidance.[1] An assignment sheet with arrangements for conferences as required should give the superior pupil the directions and incentives for his work. The average pupil likewise should plan to

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(1) George E. Hill - The Psychological Basis for Methods in Teaching Pupils of Different Ability Levels - The Social Studies - October 1938, p. 254

do supplementary work, but not as much nor on quite the level of difficulty as that of the superior pupil.

Where pupils have specific interests in the subject matter, they can work with less supervision on more difficult projects. But frequently teachers have to stimulate interest and guide pupils in the selection of work within the scope of their abilities or their needs.[1] A pupil who does not handle source materials well should be encouraged to choose a problem with carefully annotated references; whereas a pupil who has pronounced, but perhaps unfounded views on various forms of government, should be urged to make a thorough study of the leading types of governments and their fundamental philosophies.

CONCLUSIONS TO BE DRAWN FROM PROBLEMS

Pupils must be trained to reach conclusions only after a judicious choice of references that express widely varying viewpoints. Guided by the teacher they should select sources and comments that will assist them to keep an open mind and suspend judgment until all data are organized and analyzed. But once the materials are

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(1) Edith M. Selberg and J. Darrell Barnard
Teaching Pupils the Method for Solving Problems - Educational Method, May 1937 p. 415

organized and analyzed, the conclusion reached must be definite subject only to the change of future qualifying evidence.[1]

Problems which time has already settled can be studied and deliberated with every prospect of attaining a satisfactory solution. In discussing present day problems, however, it is better that students should form certain opinions by reasoning even on incomplete data than through the acceptance of the dictates of propaganda or prejudice. In such instances pupils should be trained for awareness of future events which would tend to confirm or alter their point of view.

Confronted by arguments of apparently equal weight and importance, the pupil must have recourse to a guiding philosophy which will help to form his opinions. Such a philosophy can be found in a reference to the objectives of the course. If American history is to be taught for civic purposes, every phase of activity should deal with and revert constantly to those aims.

"A new educational philosophy is being developed. According to this new educational philosophy, learning is an active process. Herbartianism stressed the teacher;

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(1) Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining - Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools - pp. 114 - 115

the new philosophy emphasizes the pupil. - The interests of the pupils individually and collectively must be considered."[1]

Because the learning process must be so definitely in the hands of the pupil, the outcomes of this process, that is the ability to think and to form conclusions, must also be in the hands of the pupil. The teacher must always stand aloof in the expression of personal opinions, guiding only when pupils are confused by conflicting data or in need of additional reference materials. In forming opinions, the teacher should lead his class to consider the needs of society and to plan for civic purposes, rather than for the aggrandizement of the individual.[2]

Problems which arose in the past and have been settled in the course of time can and should be commented upon by the teacher in an effort to demonstrate the historical method. Only when pupils are apparently swayed through propaganda or prejudice to take a harmful or immoral stand on any issue, should the teacher impose his conclusions. Violence to attain a desired end as

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(1) Arthur C. Bining and David H. Biding - Teaching the Social Studies in Elementary Schools, pp. 67 - 68

(2) Ibid pp. 68 - 69

favored by communism, anti-Semitism, and racial or religious prejudice are but a few of the harmful, immoral, anti-social practices which should be wholeheartedly condemned by both the teacher and the class.

Few are the present day problems that permit a definite stand on the part of the instructor. But as the government and practice of the American people are committed to the democratic way of life, the teacher should lead his pupils to accept this philosophy as their own.[1] Departures from democratic principles may be criticized, provided the philosophy in general is accepted. "Sweat shops" are not consistent with the concept of a "just return for labor", and thus merit condemnation. Refusal to cooperate with the party in power because it does not typify the will of a minority is foolish and on a large scale can lead to results detrimental to the good of the state.[2] Such departures from democratic living are best studied by the class and conclusions drawn from the customary organization and analysis of materials. In certain instances, however,

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(1) Ibid, pp. 2 - 3

(2) Ibid, pp. 44 and 49

the teacher may be called upon to provide conclusions when for special reasons the class is unable to do so.

The wise teacher treats all problems with perfect fairness supplying facts and conclusions of facts which the pupils have been unable to discover. It is well, however, to remember that completely balanced opinions and arguments that end only in doubt are pernicious to the pupil and should be guarded against by the teacher.[1] Leading pupils away from confusion rather than toward it is but one of the requisites of education.

A well-trained and superior type of teacher is needed. "Foremost among the qualities essential in a teacher of the social studies must stand a reverence for truth. It occurs most often among the qualities observed in the classroom."[2] From experience and knowledge the teacher is well aware of the past and possibly present failures of the human race; but more than the failures, he is aware of successful achievements. He knows the achievements have come through the use of knowledge and he has faith that he can implant in his students a desire to make a right and social use of

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(1) Henry Johnson - Teaching of History in the Elementary and Secondary Schools, pp. 355

(2) Edward Payson Smith - A Study of Personal Qualities Essential in a Superior Teacher of the Social Studies - Appendix A of the Teacher of the Social Studies by William C. Bagley and Thomas Alexander, p. 253

knowledge.[1]

Pupils expect their teachers to practice as they preach. Talking about the common good is insufficient; a project planned by the teacher in which the class cooperates will do more than anything else to vivify social altruism.[2] The basis for social altruism is sympathy. Sympathy on the part of the teacher might be expressed as a desire to understand the obstacles, which may be in the path of education, and to point out the way around the obstacles, but not to do the hurdling for the class.[3]

Impartiality "rests upon intellectual honesty and reverence for truth combined with broad sympathy."[4] It is impossible to teach wisely in any phase of the social studies if the teacher is unable to be impartial in judgment.[5]

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(1) Ibid, pp. 255 - 256

(2) Ibid, pp. 251 - 258

(3) Ibid, pp. 258 - 259

(4) Ibid, p. 260

(5) Ibid, p. 269

Teachers must show the values of impartial interpretation. Just as in the science laboratory one step in an experiment leads to a new step, so in the social sciences, one course of events leads inevitably to specific results. But in the social sciences a result is rarely final; it usually becomes but another link in a chain of events. Giving pupils a knowledge of the past is insufficient; they must be taught to make a daily use of historical facts.[1]

The instructor himself must progress with the times. He must have an alert mind receptive to changing social trends and social problems.[2] His own sense of curiosity as to <u>what</u> is going on in the world and <u>why</u> must be imparted to the pupils. A historian's job in former days was limited to curiosity about the materials in the archives of the past; today he must be curious before the materials are even tabulated for the archives.

A vital duty of teachers is the ability to make historical characters and events real. Even present day characters and events, if outside the realm of pupil activities, can be as hard to appreciate as characters and events from the pages of ancient history.

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(1) Ibid, pp. 261 - 263

(2) Ibid, p. 264

The ability to translate people and incidents into homely similes comparable to the experiences of pupils will make the present and the past come within the scope of pupil comprehension.[1]

The final duty of teachers is to avoid indoctrination, whether of personal opinions or social dogmas.

"The term (indoctrination) may be used to mean the inculcation of a series of absolute articles of faith which must be taken blindly and not questioned. In this sense indoctrination is out of place in the public schools. Yet any selection of social facts for instruction, or every declaration of purposes in such instruction, rests on a belief in its value and utility to society. - -

"It is one of the findings of contemporary sociology that some conception of values in our minds, some 'frame of reference', controls our selection and emphasis in instruction in the social studies. It is by recognizing this fact that we can acquire a certain humility which will prevent our instruction from hardening into the extreme form of dogmatism to which indoctrination may be rightly applied. The spirit of instruction, whatever the purposes and methods is quite as important as the

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(1) Ibid, pp. 267 - 268

letter of the instruction. A narrow spirit may kill the most liberally conceived letter of the law, and if it is dominant, mechanical safeguards are as naught. Where the generous spirit is ardently cherished, no letter of law, however harsh in form and statement, can triumph over humanity."[1]

THE PLACE OF CONTROVERSIAL TOPICS

The American people have never been of one mind on any important issue, whether it was a consideration of the means to stop child labor or entry into war; and it is not to be expected that they ever will be. It is impossible, therefore, to believe that the schools can avoid the study of controversial issues.

The emotionalism and prejudice so frequently a part of controversy at least have the merit of arousing interest. From this point it is possible to attack the problem with the hope of obtaining pertinent data and unbiased facts. If the pupils do not respond to the necessity for studying both sides of the question,

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(1) The Social Studies Curriculum - 14th Yearbook of the Department of Superintendents of the National Education Association, pp. 60 - 61

they should be encouraged to study one side only, that is, the negative side.[1] Once his opponent's point of view is known, the pupil is better prepared to understand the issue in its entirety.

"The highest and strongest form of patriotism is not that of jingoism, but of intelligent understanding of the world in which we live, in the most realistic terms possible. That boastfulness and arrogance are not the traits of the winners, but the cultivation of a keen interest in all the ways of rivals, and the endeavor to understand them as a means of overthrowing them is as sound a principle of politics (or of classroom discussion) as it is of athletics."[2]

Certainly frank acceptance of controversy is necessary in the classroom. Controversy in civic life heralds change, and change should be controlled by thinkers and not by iconoclasts. Training for good citizenship is one thing when conditions are simple and fairly stable. It is quite another thing when

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(1) Ernest Horn - Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies, pp. 87 - 91

(2) Charles E. Merriam - Civic Education in the United States - p. 146

conditions are confused, complicated, and unsettled, when class divisions and struggles are imminent.

Every force that tends to liberate educational processes is a premium placed upon intelligent and orderly methods of directing to a more just, equitable, and humane end the social changes that are going on anyway.[1]

THE IMPORTANCE OF A WIDE RANGE OF READING MATERIALS

In order that pupils may have sufficient data from which to organize and analyze their problems, a wide range of reading materials is necessary. Henry Johnson describes materials which are used to supplement the basic knowledge of the course as "collateral" reading.[2] In collateral reading he sees the following aids:

1. Materials to add elements of reality.
2. Materials to add information important as information.
3. Materials to make history interesting or inspiring.
4. Materials to give acquaintance with historical literature.
5. Materials, to illustrate the historical method of study.[1]

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(1) John Dewey - The Social Significance of Academic Freedom - The Social Frontier, March 1936, p. 166

(2) The Teaching of History in the Elementary and Secondary Schools, Chapter XIII - Collateral Reading

Time in the history course is the greatest obstacle to fulfilling the objectives. Yet time that is not planned to fulfill specific objectives is wasted. Assigning outside reading in order to develop good reading tastes, or to give understanding of the past, is not sufficient; especially when these purposes can be accomplished by careful planning of the various phases of problem work. Collateral reading should be a part of the course of study, but it should have organization and be directed within the scope of the pupils' abilities toward definite aims. For example, reading "The Tragic Era" by Claude G. Bowers, is fine supplementary work for any pupil as it gives acquaintance with historical literature, gives historical information, and makes history interesting. But this is too important a piece of work to be read with the detachment that is so frequently a part of collateral reading. Rather "The Tragic Era" should be read to illustrate a minor problem in a larger unit problem on the Reconstruction Period. "During the period of adolescence, when interest can readily be aroused, when good habits can be developed, when attitudes can easily be built up, when the capacity for forming ideals is strong, and when the mind is wide open to

impressions, the natural desire for reading should be skillfully directed, and the foundations laid for the wise use of books."[1]

Source Books in United States History

The use of original sources implies that the historian or student goes back to writings in a certain period of history dealing with a particular problem. The writings include laws, letters, diaries, memoirs, treaties, and decrees. It is important for pupils to learn what are valuable and dependable sources and how to use them. But it is obvious that high school pupils can seldom locate the important ideas in the social studies wholly from original sources.[2] Source books containing extracts of various writings are to be found but few of them contain selections of proper length or complete information; and too many contain dry excerpts of a legal or political nature rather than the more interesting accounts of every-day life.[3]

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(1) Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools by Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining, p. 292. McGraw - Hill Book Company, Inc. 1935. Underlining is mine.

(2) Ernest Horn - Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies, p. 27

(3) Ibid, pp. 236 - 237

Standard general references, such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, atlases, government publications, and great histories such as Adams' "Epic of America", Bryce's "The American Commonwealth", Turner's "The Frontier in American History", Charnwood's Abraham Lincoln", these and similar writings constitute the backbone of sources for high school pupils.[1] Teachers should not talk about the Congressional Record; they should have it appear regularly in the classroom and offer it to their pupils in the course of regular assignments. Perhaps the greatest single source of material in the future will be the tremendous project now being undertaken by the national government through the Works Progress Administration on Americana of the past and the present. The card catalog and "The Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature" should be as familiar as the multiplication table.

Use of "Everyday" Sources

"It is evident that we are born into a world of words as well as things. The things are palpable.... The words are elusive. Yet the meaning of things is profoundly affected by words."[2]

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(1) Ibid, pp. 232 - 233

(2) Harold D. Loswell - Propaganda and the Channels of Communication from the 7th Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, p. 14

Newspapers, magazines, books, radio, moving pictures, all combine to help form our opinions of the world we live in. In a broad sense the newspapers throughout the country represent the basic social interests of all the people. However, newspaper control is tending toward control by a few chains such as Hearst, Scripps-Howard, and Gannett; and this in turn means that the large business groups exert an undue influence on the press.[1] The various news exchanges of the press associations make for less rather than greater accuracy. Foreign correspondents are subject to the censorship of the country where they work and reside.[2]

But it is well to remember that the power of the press cannot be fully ascertained. Some people look to a loss of its prestige and cite the fact that in 1936 and in 1940 the press was largely opposed to Franklin Delano Roosevelt; whereas on the radio both the Democratic and Republican parties were given a hearing. But all of us believe as we wish to believe; moreover we listen to and we read pretty much what we wish to believe. "Perhaps the most important thing

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(1) Ibid, p. 21

(2) Ibid, p. 24

in any attempt of the schools to assist in building a capacity for forming intelligent public opinion is to stress the need for critical analysis. Enough education will produce informed public opinion which is a very good thing but it may not produce an intelligent public opinion."[1]

The only answer to the control of the press by its powerful interests is to make sure that many interest groups are represented by their publications. "The Daily Worker" as well as "The New York Times" should be subjected to critical analysis. In addition the wide field of magazine publications provide concise and possibly more mature comments on current events. Here again all types of magazines should be consulted. "Fortune", "The Boot and Shoe Recorder", "The Reader's Digest", "The Saturday Evening Post", - a long list of periodicals would but indicate the extent of the field.

Other sources of news which are brief and yet informative are found in the newsletters of stock exchange houses, the radio, and the moving pictures. All of these sources are subject to bias in the same way as the newspapers, but all are capable of analysis.

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(1) William C. McGinnis - Public Opinion from the Journal of Education - June 1938, p. 193

It is sufficient to summarize by saying that all news publishing agencies are important to the student; their intrinsic worth is to be discovered only in the analysis of the information they contain.

CHAPTER VI

SAMPLE UNIT OF STUDY

In order that a few of the underlying demands of this thesis may be delineated for actual practice, the following unit of study is submitted to be worked out in the classroom as a group problem or as a supplementary problem for a superior pupil. If used for a class unit, the teacher will assign the various phases to fit the differing needs of slow, average and superior students. If used as a supplementary unit by a capable student, arrangements for conferences with the teacher as the work progresses must be made as well as the opportunity to present a summary before the class. The simpler, fundamental problems of the unit are given first (A,B,C); the more enriching problems follow in the order of their difficulty. Those sections which might be prohibited in certain localities for exhibiting a controversial nature are starred thus *.

THE GROWTH OF DEMOCRACY IN THE UNITED STATES

I Overview

A reliable concept of democracy is rarely found among students or adults. Too often it is

confused with Utopia. Democracy as a way of living is only vaguely discussed or intimated and becomes an ideal to be kept in mind but never really achieved.

"Educators[1] should make an analysis of the profounder more basic values in our tradition (of democracy.) They should develop a sense of their significance for contemporary American life through acquaintance with their finest expressions in literature, art, and character, and a dramatic reliving of the conditions which gave birth to them."

Pupils should look for active expressions of democracy in their own lives and in the lives of adults. Perhaps correlation of history with music, art, and literature will provide the simplest means of impressing the value of democracy. The influence of the negro, the Jew, the Indian, and those of foreign extraction in the realm of American music can be readily appreciated. Music is a great democratizer for it shuts its doors to no man regardless of race,

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(1) What Shall Our Schools Teach as Patriotism? by George E. Astelle Educational Method, p. 78

or creed, or family position. Who are the great American artists? Let us have the art student list a few. Who are the great authors? A quick scanning of the literature course will answer. American sports demand nothing of the competitor save the spirit and prowess to win. Science works for all men and in America it has served to raise the standard of living until today the average factory worker has available comforts undreamed of by kings and nobles of a bygone day. What are these comforts that are found necessities today?

What expressions of democracy can be found in American newspapers, or magazines, or in modern American writings? Every pupil should find the best thoughts on this subject and also its dread antithesis, the subservience of democracy.

Tracing the growth of democratic ideas in America will contribute to the understanding that "we[1] have achieved considerable political democracy and some social democracy, but that the movement toward industrial

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(1) A Syllabus in American History and Problems of Democracy for Secondary Schools by a committee of the New England History Teachers' Association, p. 37

democracy has barely started."

Now let us find out just what we mean by political, social, and industrial democracy by studying the growth of democracy in the United States.

II Purposes of the study:

A. To develop a concept of the meaning of democracy.

B. To develop a concept of the growth of democracy in the United States.

C. To develop a concept of the present status of democracy in this country.

D. To show the changing nature and ultimate ideal of American democracy.

E. To give practice in the use of indices, in organizing materials, and in drawing conclusions.

III Problems and Activities

A. Complete the following outline showing the steps by which American democracy developed. This entails use of the index of the class text and of the class outline of study.

A. Virginia House of Burgesses

B. The Mayflower Compact

C. The Fundamental Orders of Connecticut

D. William Penn's ideas on government

E. The Virginia Bill of Rights

etc. etc.

B. What does democracy mean? Use your dictionary, your text, and a famous authority for three definitions; then express in your own words.
Compare democracy, autocracy, and anarchy.
Name four great democracies of the world today.
Name four great nations not under democratic rule.
How do the Declaration of Independence and the "Bill of Rights" of the Constitution of the United States of America set forth the principles of democracy?

C. Does the form of government in the United States attempt true political democracy? How? * In what ways does the form of government fail to demonstrate political democracy?
* Name and discuss a particular difficulty or danger frequently met in democracies. How could this danger be obviated?

D. Comment on Woodrow Wilson's statement: "The world must be made safe for democracy." (Note: A further enlargement of directions is intentionally omitted. The pupil is free to handle this part of the work in any way he wishes.)

E. Choose one of the following:

1. Name four great American musicians.
2. Name four great American artists.
3. Name four famous American authors.
4. Name four well-known American sportsmen. At least two should be people famous before 1920.
5. Name four renowned American scientists.

Give the outstanding achievement of each person named. Write a brief summary of the life of one person. Include in the summary time and place of birth, parentage, race or religion, education, and description of his most famous work. If there is anything in the life of this famous character that typifies the importance of democratic living, explain in full.

F. Clip from a newspaper or magazine a recent statement on democracy as expressed by a public leader in this state or abroad. What was the occasion for the statement? Criticize the statement concisely.

G. *Do you know of any public utterances that show hostility to democracy? What element of truth is there in these utterances? What changes in political, economic, or social life do you personally advocate to correct shortages in the American approach to the democratic ideal?

H. Give a brief explanation of political democracy; social democracy; industrial democracy. Give examples where Americans have attained or approached the ideal in each. * How have we failed to attain or approach the ideal in each?

Help in organizing this problem may be obtained from "A Syllabus of American History and Problems of American Democracy for Secondary Schools" by a committee of the New England History Teachers' Association, Blanche A. Cheney, Chairman. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1935. See "Outcomes for which the Teacher Works", pp. 52, 53, 60

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